TERRAQUEA;

OR, A

NEW SYSTEM

OF

Geography and Modern History.

BY

THE REV. JAMES GORDON,

VICAR OF BARRAGH, IN IRELAND.

VOLUME I.

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TO THE

RIGHT HONOURABLE

LORD VISCOUNT STOPFORD.

MY LORD,

HAVING had, when employed in the tuition of your lordſhip, the pleaſure of giving you the rudiments of geography, I am happy to have permiſſion to dedicate this book to your lordſhip, and thereby to give a public teſtimony of the unfeigned eſteem which I have for you, in whom in early youth I experienced a very amiable diſpoſition.

I am,

MY LORD,

Your LORDSHIP'S

Very humble Servant,

JAMES BENTLEY GORDON.

PREFACE.

IN the formation of the following work, which I lay with diffidence before the public, my mode has been to collect all the authentic information, which I poſſibly could, concerning each country, and to endeavour to give to my readers, from a collective view, and careful compariſon of all the facts, a general idea in conciſe and plain terms. With reſpect to the latter, at leaſt, I fear that my readers may find many inſtances in which I have failed. To bring to perfection a work of this nature, mental abilities, money, and laborious ap-

plication are required. To the two former I can lay no claim, and could only endeavour to ſupply the want of them by the laſt. The difficulty of procuring books to a perſon unable to purchaſe very many, muſt greatly retard the progreſs of ſuch a work. I have borrowed a great number from a few gentlemen, who happened to be poſſeſſed at once of libraries and liberal ſentiments. In this number I am moſt of all obliged to the Honourable and Reverend Thomas Stopford, Dean of Ferns, whoſe extraordinary and well known philanthropy, exerted in every line where opportunities occur, has been in this reſpect of conſiderable ſervice to me.

Thoſe deſcribers of countries who have written from their own experience, or actually viſited the places which they deſcribe, I deem original authors,

authors, and the firſt in authenticity. Next to theſe I conſider thoſe who have faithfully compiled from ſuch originals. Among both kinds we find a multitude of contradictions, and in many of them not a few errors and miſrepreſentations; ſo that to diſtinguiſh the truth much care and attention are neceſſary. Yet even with ſuch materials compilers might be well ſatisfied, if they were furniſhed in ſuch plenty and variety as that a ſufficient number of facts could be ſelected out of them for a full and ſatisfactory deſcription of every country. But this is ſo far from being the caſe, that, after the utmoſt reſearch, many countries remain abſolutely unknown, and all the information which can be collected concerning the reſt is defective in a greater or leſs degree. Hence in the following work the accounts of countries

tries vary greatly in length; the deſcriptions being neceſſarily ſhort where litte matter can be found, and capable of being made longer where more ſatisfactory information can be given. The ſtock of materials, however, in this enlightened age receives continually ſome augmentations; new travels, voyages, and compilations, being every year publiſhed, which tend to throw new light on this ſubject; and mankind are in this reſpect, highly indebted to ſome of the preſent ſovereigns of Europe, particularly to the King of Great Britain, for his generous and ſucceſsful endeavours to enlarge the ſphere of geographical knowledge.

Much might be ſaid with truth concerning the utility of this branch of literature. I ſhall only obſerve that it is indiſpenſibly neceſſary for

the underſtanding of Hiſtory, which, without it, and without chronology, is a mere congeries of confuſed ideas, or chaos of events. Of this the great hiſtorian Gibbon has been ſo ſenſible, that he has taken care to intermix with his hiſtory ſuch geographical deſcriptions as are requiſite to elucidate the ſeveral parts of his narration; the neglect of which in Hume and ſome other of the beſt modern hiſtorians appears a defect. As hiſtory, though it is diſtinct in itſelf, and requires to be quite ſeparately treated, yet ought to be interſperſed to a certain degree with geographical details; ſo geography, comprehending, in the preſent acceptation of the word, the government and manners of nations, demands in like manner ſome admixture of hiſtorical accounts. In the following work, therefore, are inſerted ſuch hiſtorical facts as are immediately

diately connected with the ſubject; and in the general view of the Earth's Surface ſome of the principal periods of univerſal hiſtory are briefly noticed, to ſerve, as it were, as fixed points, to which tranſactions, afterwards related in the deſcriptions of particular countries, may be referred.

Objections will doubtleſs be made, and for ſuch as ſhall prove well founded I ſhall think myſelf obliged to the objectors, ſince to acquire and to communicate information is the object of a writer, but it is to be hoped that candid and well informed readers will give little countenance to thoſe which may be made without reaſonable grounds. For inſtance, it may be objected that a treatiſe of aſtronomy is not prefixed to this, as to other ſyſtems of gography. It muſt be confeſſed that a ſmall part of the following

ing work, very ſmall indeed in proportion to the whole, cannot be well underſtood without ſome knowledge of aſtronomy. But if for this reaſon a treatiſe of aſtronomy ought to be prefixed, why ſhould not the elements of Euclid, trigonometry, conic ſections, and algebra, be placed before that treatiſe? Since aſtronomy cannot be underſtood without a previous knowledge of mathematics. The fact is, that though the various branches of literature are ſo connected, that one cannot be fully known without a knowledge of others, yet they all require diſtinct treatiſes, and to be learned ſeparately. A ſyſtem of aſtronomy prefixed to this ſyſtem of geography would ſerve very well to augment the ſize of the work; but this is directly contrary to my object. This futile objection alſo may be made, that the boundaries of countries

countries are not verbally deſcribed in the accounts of them. But let it be remembered that the ideas of ſuch boundaries can be acquired only from the inſpection of maps or globes, and that geography can no more be learned without either maps or globes, than arithmetic without ſymbols of numbers, or geometry without diagrams.

A new Atlas is to be engraved to accompany this work, but as the preparation of it will require time, a few maps are to be inſerted in the volumes, for the temporary uſe of ſuch readers as may happen not to be furniſhed with ſets of maps; but it is to be hoped that this may not be the caſe in many inſtances, as maps of a much larger ſize, than thoſe which can be inſerted in books of geography, ought to make a part of the furniture

niture of every gentleman, who is either himſelf a reader, or has children to be inſtructed; ſince, without ſuch maps, hiſtory cannot be ſtudied in the manner in which it ought. A map of the globe is given with this volume; but an artificial ſphere, repreſenting the earth or terreſtrial globe, is much to be preferred for the uſe of learners, particularly becauſe no projection of a map of the whole earth can be contrived, in which the proportion, figure, and poſition of countries can be preſerved.

The accounts of France and Italy, which ought to have been given in this volume between thoſe of Spain and Switzerland, are deferred, becauſe ſome information neceſſary for the finiſhing them was not received ſoon enough for that purpoſe.

Tables

Tables of coin, weights, meaſures, languages, &c. will be put at the end of the ſucceeding volumes.

DEFINITIONS

DEFINITIONS.

GEOGRAPHY is a deſcription of the Surface of the Earth, which, as it conſiſts of land and water, is called the Terraqueous Globe.

The earth is a planet, and, like other planets, is in figure an oblate ſpheroid, being ſomewhat flatted in the polar parts, and diſtended in the equatorial; but differs ſo little from a perfect globe or ſphere, that it is conſidered as ſuch in calculations concerning it *.

The

* As the axis of the earth is reckoned to be but 17 miles and about a tenth of a mile ſhorter than the diameter of the equator, which diameter is near 8000 miles in length, the difference is very inconſiderable, being leſs than the 460th part of the whole; ſo that an oblate ſpheroid, a foot in diameter, exactly ſimilar to the earth in ſhape, could not poſſibly be diſtinguiſhed by the eye from a globe of the ſame magnitude; the difference between the lengths of its longeſt and ſhorteſt diameters being leſs than the 460th part of a foot, or the 38th part of an inch. That the earth is round in the nature of a ſphere

or

The axis of the earth is an imaginary right line, which paſſes through the center of the earth, on which the earth revolves in 24 hours, ſo as to

or ſpheroid cannot be doubted from any other cauſe than ignorance, it being that kind of a truth which requires only to be underſtood, in order to be admitted beyond a poſſibility of doubt. A perſon of even mean capacity muſt be convinced of it, who views a map or chart of the earth, and conſiders that, while the Atlantic Ocean lies on the weſt of the Old Continent, and the Pacific on the eaſt, a navigator by ſailing from this continent with a weſterly courſe may croſs the Atlantic, enter the Pacific, and thus circumnavigate the whole earth by directing his courſe always to the weſt. Nor is any great force of underſtanding required to be convinced of the ſame, from the regular ſucceſſive propagation of light on the earth's ſurface, and the gradual elevation of the celeſtial poles. If the earth were a plain, it is evident that as ſoon as the ſun would be above the horizon of one place, it would be above the horizon of all, or, in other words, the ſun would riſe to all parts of the earth at the ſame time, and the poles would every where appear of the ſame elevation. But it is an incontrovertible fact that the light is propagated gradually on the ſurface of the earth at the rate of one degree of longitude in four minutes of time; that is, the ſun riſes four minutes earlier to any place, than to any other ſituate one degree farther to the weſt. Hence the earth muſt be either of a ſpherical or a cylindrical form. But that it is not cylindrical is equally demonſtrable, from the gradual elevation of the celeſtial polar points, each riſing regularly one degree above the horizon, for every degree of latitude through which a ſpectator proceeds in advancing toward it from the equator.

cauſe

cauſe the regular viciſſitude of day and night in every part of its ſurface.

The poles of the earth are the extremities of the axis, or the points in which the axis meets the ſurface of the globe. The northern of them is called the Arctic Pole, the ſouthern the Antarctic.

The equator or equinoctial of the earth is a great circle † on the ſurface of the earth, ſituate between the two poles in ſuch manner as to be every where equidiſtant from both, and to divide the earth into the northern and ſouthern hemiſpheres.

The tropics of the earth are two ſmaller circles ‡ on the earth's ſurface, ſituate one on each ſide of the equator, parallel to it, and equidiſtant from it, the diſtance of each from that great circle being almoſt 23 degrees and an half of latitude. The northern is called the Tropic of Cancer, the ſouthern the Tropic of Capricorn.

† A great circle on a globe's ſurface is that which has the ſame center with the globe, which divides the globe into two equal parts or hemiſpheres, and than which no greater can be drawn on that globe.

‡ A ſmaller circle on the ſurface of a globe, is one which has not the ſame center with the globe, and which divides the globe into two unequal ſegments.

The

The polar circles of the earth are two ſmaller circles on the earth's ſurface, parallel to the equator, each ſituate at the ſame diſtance from its reſpective pole that the tropics are from the equator. The northern is called the Arctic Circle, the ſouthern the Antarctic.

The meridians are great circles paſſing through the poles, and conſequently having the axis for their common diameter, and cutting the equator perpendicularly. Their number is without end, as a meridian is conceived to paſs through every point in the equator.

The latitude of a place on the earth's ſurface is an arch of the meridian which paſſes through the place, intercepted between the place and the equator; or is the diſtance of the place from the equator, reckoned on the curved ſurface of the terreſtrial globe or earth. The latitude of places is either north or ſouth, according as they are ſituate on the northern or ſouthern ſide of the equator. The length of a degree of latitude is 60 geographical miles, which are equal to about 69 and an half Engliſh, or ſomewhat above 54 Iriſh miles. But on account of the oblate ſpheroidal ſhape of the earth, by which the polar parts are ſomewhat leſs curved than the equatorial, a degree of latitude in the

the former is ſomewhat longer than in the latter.

The longitude of a place is an arch of the equator, intercepted between the meridian which paſſes through the place and another meridian which is aſſumed as a firſt meridian; or is the diſtance of the place from the aſſumed firſt meridian, reckoned on the curved ſurface of the earth. As all meridians are quite of the ſame nature, ſo that no one can claim any pre-eminence, each geographer at preſent commonly aſſumes that which paſſes through the capital city of his own country, as a firſt meridian. The longitude is commonly reckoned both toward the eaſt and toward the weſt from the aſſumed meridian, by which mode of reckoning the greateſt longitude which any place can have is 180 degrees: but ſometimes it is reckoned only one way, either to the eaſt or weſt, quite round the globe, ſo that a place may have a longitude of almoſt 360 degrees. At the equator the length of a degree of longitude is the ſame with that of a degree of latitude, but as the interval between anv two meridians is greateſt at the equator, and diminiſhes regularly toward the poles where it ends in a point, the degrees of longitude, when conſidered as arches of circles parallel to the equator,

diminiſh in proportion as their diſtance from the equator is encreaſed.

The tropics and polar circles divide the ſurface of the globe into five regions called Zones, of which one is called the torrid zone, two the temperate, and two the frigid.

The torrid zone is the middle region of the globe, occupying all the ſpace which lies between the two tropics.

The temperate zones lie one on each ſide of the torrid, and occupy all between the tropics and the polar circles, the northern lying between the tropic of cancer and the arctic circle, the ſouthern between the tropic of capricorn and the antarctic.

The frigid zones are the extreme regions of the globe, divided from the temperate zones by the polar circles *. The northern may be called the arctic zone, the ſouthern the antarctic.

A climate is a ſubdiviſion of a zone, or a girdle round the globe, contained between two circles pa-

* The term Zone, which in ſtrictneſs of ſpeech ſignifies a Girdle, and is properly enough applied to the torrid and temperate regions, retains not its primitive ſignification when applied to the frigid.

rallel to the equator, ſo ſituate, that the longeſt day in that of the two circles which is nearer to the equator is half an hour ſhorter than the longeſt day in that which is farther from it, if the climate be a ſubdiviſion of the torrid or of either of the temperate zones; but if it be a ſubdiviſion of either of the frigid zones, the longeſt day in that of the two circles which is nearer to the equator is a month ſhorter than the longeſt day in that which is farther from it. From the equator where the days and nights are always equal, or twelve hours each in every part of the year, to each polar circle where the longeſt day is 24 hours, the number of climates is 24; and ſix climates more are reckoned from each polar circle to its reſpective pole where the day is ſix months long, the whole year at each polar point conſiſting of one day and one night of ſix months each. Thus 30 northern climates are reckoned from the equator to the arctic pole, and 30 ſouthern climates from the equator to the antarctic pole †.

† The cauſe of the inequality of the days or of the variation of climates, can by any perſon who underſtands aſtronomy be in a great meaſure explained even to a perſon quite ignorant of that ſublime ſcience, by moving round the flame of a candle a ſmall globe, with its axis placed in the ſame poſition as that of the axis of the earth, and preſerved in the ſame parallelism during its circumgyration.

A TABLE OF CLIMATES,

BETWEEN THE EQUATOR AND EACH POLAR CIRCLE.

Climate.	Length of the longeſt Day in Hours.	Latitude to which each climate extends.		Climate.	Length of the longeſt Day in Hours.	Latitude to which each climate extends.	
		Deg.	Min.			Deg.	Min.
1ſt.	12½	8	25	13th.	18½	59	58
2d.	13	16	25	14th.	19	61	18
3d.	13½	23	50	15th.	19½	62	25
4th.	14	30	25	16th.	20	63	22
5th.	14½	36	28	17th.	20½	64	6
6th.	15	41	22	18th.	21	64	49
7th.	15½	45	29	19th.	21½	65	21
8th.	16	49	1	20th.	22	65	47
9th.	16½	52	0	21ſt.	22½	66	6
10th.	17	54	27	22d.	23	66	20
11th.	17½	56	37	23d.	23½	66	21
12th.	18	58	29	24th.	24	66	3[illegible]

CLIMATES

FROM EACH POLAR CIRCLE TO ITS RESPECTIVE POLE.

Climate.	Length of the longeſt Day in Months	Latitude to which each climate extends.		Climate.	Length of the longeſt Days in Months	Latitude to which each climate extends.	
		Deg.	Min.			Deg.	Min.
25th.	1	67	21	28th.	4	78	30
26th.	2	69	48	29th.	5	84	5
27th.	3	73	37	30th.	6	90	0

A TABLE

A TABLE

Shewing the Number of Geographical Miles contained in a Degree of Longitude in each of the Circles parallel to the Equator, or at each Degree of Latitude.

Degrees of Latitude.	Miles	100dth. Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles	100dth. Parts of a Mile.	Degrees of Latitude.	Miles	100dth. Part of a Mile.
1	59	96	31	51	43	61	29	4
2	59	94	32	50	88	62	28	17
3	59	92	33	50	32	63	27	24
4	59	86	34	49	74	64	26	30
5	59	77	35	49	15	65	25	36
6	59	67	36	48	54	66	24	41
7	59	56	37	47	92	67	23	45
8	59	40	38	47	28	68	22	48
9	59	20	39	46	62	69	21	51
10	59	8	40	46	00	70	20	52
11	58	89	41	45	28	71	19	54
12	58	68	42	44	95	72	18	55
13	58	46	43	43	88	73	17	54
14	58	22	44	43	16	74	16	53
15	58	00	45	42	43	75	15	52
16	57	60	46	41	68	76	14	51
17	57	30	47	41	00	77	13	50
18	57	4	48	40	15	78	12	48
19	56	73	49	39	36	79	11	45
20	56	38	50	38	57	80	10	42
21	56	00	51	37	73	81	9	38
22	55	63	52	37	00	82	8	35
23	55	23	53	36	18	83	7	32
24	54	81	54	35	26	84	6	28
25	54	38	55	34	41	85	5	23
26	54	00	56	33	55	86	4	18
27	53	44	57	32	67	87	3	14
28	53	00	58	31	79	88	2	9
29	52	48	59	30	90	89	1	5
30	51	96	60	30	00	90	0	0

OF WATER AND LAND.

BY an ocean ſeems to be commonly underſtood an expanſe of water too vaſt to be confined within the limits of any land.

A ſea is a more partial and confined tract of water, to which limits are aſſigned from its poſition with reſpect to the contiguous land.

A lake is an inſulated tract of water completely environed by land, with exception of ſtreams of water which it may receive or emit.

A gulph is almoſt a lake, being a tract of water ſurrounded by land in every part except one, where, by a channel comparatively narrow, it communicates with another tract of water.

A ſtrait is a channel comparatively narrow, by which two broader ſpaces of water have a mutual communication.

A bay is a tract of water of the ſame nature as a gulph, excepting that its entrance is comparatively broad; the entrance of a bay being conceived to be at leaſt as wide as the interior part, or the bay itſelf; whereas the entrance of a gulph is narrower than the interior part or the gulph itſelf*.

A con-

* The terms Gulph and Bay are by no means uſed with this preciſion by mariners, but often in a vague and indiſcriminate manner.

A continent is a ſpace of land of dimenſions comparatively vaſt †.

An iſland is a ſmaller tract of land completely environed by water.

A peninſula is almoſt an iſland, being a tract ſurrounded by water on three ſides, or on every part except one, where it is connected to another tract.

An iſthmus is a neck of land which forms a connection between two broader tracts.

A cape is a projecting tract of the ſame nature as a peninſula, excepting that it is conceived to be the extreme part of a mnch greater tract, or that the part by which it is connected with the main land is too broad to be called an iſthmus.

manner. Thus two great bays of the Mediterranean are called, one the Gulph of Lyons, and the other the Gulph of Genoa, and thus a gulph of North America is called the Bay of Cheſepeak.

† The term Continent ſeems to have been formerly applied to land in the ſame ſenſe as ocean was to water, each ſignifying a vaſt indefinite ſpace, or one whoſe limits were unknown. At preſent when it is known that the two great continents of the globe are in their nature actually iſlands, the terms Iſland and Continent are merely relative and reſpect magnitude. Thus New Holland, which is in reſpect of the two great continents an iſland, is in reſpect of Britain conſidered as a continent, and Britain may be regarded as a continent in reſpect of Hirta, or any other of the Hebride iſlands.

From

From the above definitions it may be obſerved that an iſland reſembles a lake, a peninſula a gulph, an iſthmus a ſtrait, and a cape a bay.

OF GOVERNMENT.

GOVERNMENTS are in general diſtinguiſhed into two kinds, monarchies and commonwealths.

A monarchy is a government in which the ſovereignty, or the ſupreme power and dignity, is veſted ſingly in one perſon or monarch.

A commonwealth is a government in which the ſovereignty is veſted in a plurality of perſons conjointly.

Monarchies are with regard to the mode of ſucceſſion either hereditary or elective, in reſpect of power abſolute or limited.

A hereditary monarchy is that in which a certain determinate line of ſucceſſion is by law or cuſtom eſtabliſhed, ſo that a monarch is ſucceeded by one of the ſame family by right of inheritance without any election.

An elective monarchy is that in which, by eſtabliſhed cuſtom or law, a ſucceſſor is choſen or elected at the demiſe of a monarch by certain members of the ſtate, without the admiſſion of any right of inheritance.

An

An abſolute monarchy is that in which the power of the monarch over his ſubjects, or the members of the ſtate, is not confined within any ſtated limits by any legal checks or barriers eſtabliſhed in the conſtitution of the ſtate.

A limited monarchy is that in which the power of the monarch over his ſubjects is confined within certain boundaries by certain legal checks or barriers eſtabliſhed in the conſtitution of the ſtate.

Commonwealths, or republics, are in general diſtinguiſhed into ariſtocracies and democracies.

An ariſtocracy is a commonwealth, in which the ſovereignty is poſſeſſed by a part of the members of the ſtate, diſtinguiſhed by wealth or anceſtry, to the excluſion of all the reſt.

A remarkable modification of an ariſtocracy is an oligarchy, which is a government, the ſovereignty of which is monopolized under a claim of hereditary right, by a comparatively ſmall number of patrician or noble families, to the total excluſion of all the other members of the ſtate.

A democracy is a commonwealth, in which the ſovereignty is veſted in the whole collective body of the people.

The above definitions are by no means applicable to all forms of government which have ſubſiſted

or

or now ſubſiſt among mankind. Forms are endleſsly varied, and moſt of them are of a mixed nature compounded of different kinds, ſome ſo compounded that it is difficult to determine under what head, or denomination, they ought to be arranged.

OF MAPS.

CONCERNING maps, which are intended to be delineations on a flat ſurface of the ſpherical ſurface of the earth or of its parts, it is to be obſerved, that they are conſtructed in ſuch a manner that, while a perſon inſpects a map, he ought to imagine his face turned to the north, by which poſition his right hand lies toward the eaſt, his left toward the weſt, and his back toward the ſouth; the upper part of the map being the northern, the lower the ſouthern; the right-hand ſide the eaſtern, and the left-hand ſide the weſtern.

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ERRATA.

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Page 39 line 19 for *foundation*, read *fountain*.
183 line 17 for *Pruſſia*, read *Ruſſia*.
254 line 14 for 10,000, read 100,000.
254 line 18 for 16,5000, read 16,500.

TERRAQUEA.

A GENERAL VIEW OF THE *EARTH's SURFACE.*

SECTION THE FIRST.

THE GLOBE'S SURFACE—THE OCEAN—THE ISLANDS—THE CONTINENTS—THE SEAS—INLETS OF THE ATLANTIC—OF THE PACIFIC.

THE terraqueous globe is overſpread, for at leaſt two-thirds of its ſurface, by an immenſe continuous ocean, in which lie a prodigious multitude of iſlands, variouſly ſcattered, and of various magnitudes. The remaining ſpace is occupied by two vaſt continents, which are in fact iſlands environed by the ocean *. One of theſe, called the Eaſtern or Old Continent, compre- The Globe's ſurface.

* That the two continents are every where diſſevered by the ocean cannot be doubted, when it is known, that ſhips have

comprehends Europe, Aſia, and Africa, three of the four great diviſions into which geographers have diſtinguiſhed the earth; the other, termed the Weſtern or New Continent, conſtitutes America, the laſt of theſe four diviſions †.

The Ocean.

The Ocean, though one immenſe continuous body of water, is, from the relative ſituation of its parts, diſtinguiſhed into diviſions, each of which is denominated an ocean. That vaſt region of waters, which bounds the Old Continent on the weſt, and the New on the eaſt, is called the Atlantic Ocean, extending above 3000 miles in breadth in ſome places. That which on the oppoſite ſide of the globe waſhes the eaſtern ſhores of the Old, and the weſtern of the New Continent, is termed the Pacific, whoſe breadth is in ſome places 10,000, and even 14,000 miles.—That which, lying toward the Arctic Pole, bounds the Old Continent on the north, is named the Northern, Hyperborean, or Frozen Ocean; alſo the Icy or Arctic Sea. That which is ſituate toward the Antarctic Pole, on the ſouth of both continents, is denominated the Southern or Antarctic

paſſed along the whole northern coaſt of the Old Continent, (See Coxe's Ruſſian Diſcoveries) excepting the Siberian promontory of Taimura alone, which is ſaid to ſtretch northward to 78°, and which, for what I can find, has never been doubled by any veſſel, but of whoſe junction with the American continent no ſhew of probability appears.

† The terms of Eaſtern and Weſtern are thus appropriated to the two continents, only in reſpect of the Atlantic; for with relation to the Pacific the Old Continent is the weſtern, and the New the eaſtern.

Ocean.

Ocean. But theſe two polar oceans are ſometimes confounded with the two former; thoſe parts of them which lie between the Atlantic and the Poles being termed the Northern and Southern Atlantic, and thoſe which have a like poſition with reſpect to the Pacific, being conſidered in like manner as parts of that ocean. Some tracts of the ſame element are alſo ſtiled Oceans, though they are but parts of thoſe which are already named: Thus, that vaſt portion of the Pacific, which is terminated on the weſt by Africa, and on the eaſt by a great chain of iſlands extending from the vicinity of China to New Holland, bears the name of the Indian or Eaſtern Ocean; and an indefinite tract of the Atlantic, which waſhes the African coaſt ſouthward of the northern tropic, is termed the Ethiopic Ocean ‡.

Iſlands. With reſpect to the iſlands, which lie ſcattered throughout the immenſe expanſe of ocean, it may be obſerved, that they are ſomewhat more equally diſſeminated in the Pacific than in the Atlantic; that their numbers are vaſtly greater in the eaſtern proximity of each continent than in the weſtern; that in both oceans they are much more numerous in the vicinity of the Old Continent than in that of the New; and that whether the polar tracts are occupied by land or water is unknown, as, by reaſon of the ice, no veſſel has been able to penetrate farther northward on the ſide of the Atlantic than within about 8 degrees of the Arctic Pole, nor on

‡ All Africa ſouthward of the tropic of Cancer was formerly called Ethiopia.

the ſide of the Pacific farther than within 19 degrees and 16 minutes of the ſame; while the attempts to explore the regions of the ſouthern Pole have been attended with ſtill greater obſtacles, no navigator having been able to advance in any part of the ſouthern hemiſphere within a leſs diſtance of the polar point than 19 degrees §.

The Continents.

Each continent conſiſts of two vaſt peninſulas connected by a ſlender iſthmus leſs than 60 miles over. The iſthmus of Suez, which ſerves as the bond of connexion to the two immenſe peninſular tracts of the Old Continent, and prevents the junction of the Red Sea with the Mediterranean, is a ſandy deſert, ſo low and level, at leaſt in ſome places, that the practicability of making a canal acroſs it from ſea to ſea has been aſſerted by ſome travellers, which yet muſt be a matter of prodigious difficulty by reaſon of the ſhifting ſands; but, in the New Continent, an immenſely long chain of lofty mountains fills in its courſe the iſthmus of Darien, by which the two great American peninſulas are united, and thus renders it a ſufficient barrier to reſiſt the ſhock of two vaſt oceans. Both continents ſpread in the northern hemiſphere to an immenſe breadth, ſo as almoſt to meet on the ſide of the Pacific Ocean, which, a little to the ſouth of the Arctic circle, is contracted between them into a channel ſcarce 40 miles broad, called Bheering's Strait. They both with great irregularity narrow to the ſouth; the

§ For the attempts to approach the poles, ſee Phipps's Voyage, and Cook's Second and Third Voyages.

northern

northern peninſula of each being broader than the ſouthern, and the ſouthern of each approaching ſomewhat in figure to a triangle, which with an acute angle verges to the Antarctic tracts. As the two continents approach nearer to each other in the north on the ſide of the Pacific than on that of the Atlantic, ſouthward they decline from each other on the ſide of the former, and have a mutual inclination on that of the latter, ſo that two center lines, dividing each its reſpective continent longitudinally into two equal parts, have a tendency to meet and form an angle in the ſouthern Atlantic ‖.

The coaſts of both continents are bent into a vaſt variety of angles and curvatures by the circumfluous ocean, and both are deeply indented by its inlets, excepting their two ſouthern peninſulas, into which no arms of the deep have in compariſon penetrated far. Thoſe coaſts of the New Continent, which border the northern ocean, are totally unknown; nor are thoſe of the Old, which are bounded by the ſame tract of water, fully delineated. The moſt conſiderable of the known inlets, which pierce on that ſide into the land, is the White Sea *, which, parting

Seas.

‖ To theſe two center lines, which are to be conceived as arches of great circles, ſuch a poſition has been given by ſome, that they are made to cut the equator with the ſame inclination, that is, each in an angle of 30°: But the figures and dimenſions of the two continents are not ſo well known as to enable us to mark the lines preciſely.

* Etymologiſts have been much puzzled to account for the terms white, black, and other names of colours given to ſeas, which

parting the country of the Samoyedes from that of the Laplanders, advances far into Ruſſia, and ſpreads wide within the continent, ſo that its interior part is termed the Gulph of Archangel.

Inlets of the Atlantic.

The Atlantic ſends forth many branches into both continents, ſome of which proceed a vaſt way within land. The Baltic Sea, or Scandinavian Gulph, entering between Norway and the Peninſula of Denmark, with a winding channel called the Categate or Scaggerac, makes a great flexure, and tends to the north, where it forks into two arms named the Gulphs of Bothnia and Finland. This great ſea is leſs ſalt than the ocean; is not ſenſibly affected by tides; is in general not above 50 fathoms deep; and diſcharges the ſuperabundant water, which it receives from a multitude of rivers, by a current into the ſea of Britain; which ſea is only a ſmall portion of the Atlantic lying between the continent and the great iſland of Britain †. The Bay of Biſcay

which in the colour of their water are the ſame. It is well known that the Mongol nations of Aſia give the names of colours to lakes and other objects, even nations and ranks of men, without thereby intending to ſignify any difference of colour, but ſome other quality, ſome inferiority or eminence. Thus, we hear of the Black and White Calmucs, who are yet two nations of the ſame complexion; and the white and black bones; by the former of which terms are ſignified the Nobility, and by the latter the Commons of the ſame tribe. It is certain that this cuſtom has ſubſiſted among many other nations, and from it moſt probably has originated the appropriation of the names of particular colours to particular ſeas, though the reaſons for the ſeveral appropriations cannot now ſo eaſily be inveſtigated.

† This ſea is improperly called the German Ocean. It is certainly nothing more than a ſea or confined tract of the ocean,

and

is a wide inroad of the deep between France and the peninſula of Spain. The Mediterranean Sea is an immenſe gulph, which, by a ſtrait called the Gut of Gibraltar, 15 miles broad, where narroweſt, parting Barbary from Spain, enlarges prodigiouſly toward the eaſt, and forms ſome conſiderable branches; one of which, named the Adriatic Sea or Gulph of Venice, ſeparates Italy from the Dalmatian coaſt, and is joined to the main body of the Mediterranean by a tract of water termed the Ionian Sea, which flows between Greece and the Italian ſhores. The Levant is the eaſtern part of this vaſt Mediterranean gulph, lying between Anatolia, Syria, and the African coaſt. Another portion of this gulph, ſown thick with iſlands, and ſituate between the iſle of Candia, Greece, and Anatolia, is the Egean Sea or Archipelago, called by the Turks the White Sea. A winding ſtrait named the Helleſpont, 60 miles long, 3 in general broad, but much narrower in ſome places, connects the Archipelago with the Propontis or Sea of Marmora; which is in like manner joined to the Black or Euxine Sea by the Thracian Boſphorus, a ſtrait above 16 miles long, about a mile and an half in its ordinary breadth, but near Scutari not above 500 paces over. The Black Sea is almoſt a lake, its only channel of communication with any exterior ſea being the Boſphorus, through which it diſcharges its redundant waters with a rapid and inceſſant courſe into the Propon-

and while on one ſide it is touched by Germany in but a ſmall part, it is on the other bounded through its whole extent by Britain.

tis;

tis; but from it branches a conſiderable gulph called the Palus Mæotis, or the Sea of Zabaſh or of Azoph, with which it is united by a narrow channel denominated the Strait of Zabaſh or of Caffa. The length of the Mediterranean from weſt to eaſt is about 2500 Engliſh miles; but if the Black Sea be included, with which it communicates, above 300 more are to be added, in a direct line, to this extent. Like the Baltic this huge gulph is unaffected by the tide; the conſequence of its immenſe extent of ſurface compared to the narrow gut by which alone it receives the waters of the ocean; excepting that at the bottom of the Adriatic gulph a conſiderable flux and reflux are perceptible, beſide ſome ſmaller riſings of the water in a few other places. Through this gut a very ſtrong current ruſhes with a perpetual ſtream from the Atlantic into the Mediterranean, bringing to it a continual acceſſion of waters, for the diſpoſal of which, ſo as neither to raiſe the level of the gulph, nor augment its ſaltneſs, naturaliſts have not accounted with full ſatisfaction ‡.

‡ Though evaporation ſhould be ſufficient to counteract this great influx, yet, as evaporation can only take off the water, and not the ſalt with which it is mixed, a perpetual accumulation of this ſubſtance, through a ſeries of ages, muſt have rendered the waters of the Mediterranean prodigiouſly ſalter than thoſe of the Ocean, if this great gulph had no other way of diſcharging its waters. Some have ſuppoſed the influx to be counterbalanced by ſubterraneous paſſages; and others, that an under-current, directly contrary to the upper, runs out through the gut from the Mediterranean to the Atlantic, in like manner as we may perceive two contrary currents of air in the open door of a chamber, by holding a lighted candle ſucceſſively in the bottom and top of the aperture.

On

On the American ſide an arm of the Atlantic, making its way into the continent between Labrador and Greenland, ſpreads in ſuch a manner as to become a ſea of vaſt extent, which may be denominated the Gulph of Labrador, comprehending ſome extenſive iſlands, and forming two great interior gulphs; one of which, called Hudſon's Bay, waſhes the weſtern coaſt of Labrador; the other, named Baffin's Bay, is terminated eaſtward by the ſhores of Greenland §. That which is improperly called the Gulph of Saint Lawrence, is a ſea like that of

§ I have here conſidered this whole great inland Sea, or Mediterranean of America, as a gulph, and muſt continue ſo to conder it, until it be found to have ſome other communication with the ocean, beſide that which it is known to have with the Atlantic. That it has no channel which runs weſtward to the Pacific, is evident from Cook's Laſt Voyage and Herne's Journey to the Copper-mine River; nor can I find any probability of a paſſage out of it to the Northern Ocean, though even Captain Cook ſeems to have believed it, (See Cook's Laſt Voyage, Book iv. Chap. 11.) merely becauſe he found people of the Eſkeemo race inhabiting the weſtern, as well as the eaſtern, coaſts of North America. But this ſeems not only far from a proof, but even from a reaſonable preſumption of ſuch a paſſage, as it is well known, that theſe people carry their light boats acroſs the land, from one arm of the ſea to another, and conſequently might have traverſed a great ſpace of continent from lake to lake, and from inlet to inlet: Beſides, a ſtrong argument lies againſt the ſuppoſition, as the tides decreaſe towards the north in Baffin's Bay, (See Forſter's Collection of Northern Diſcoveries); ſo that in all probability Greenland makes a part of the American continent. I have taken the liberty of writing Eſkeemo inſtead of Eſquimaux; the former expreſſing the ſame ſound according to the Engliſh pronunciation, which the latter denotes according to the French.

Britain,

Britain, flowing between the iſle of Newfoundland and the American continent. The bay of Cheſapeak, as it is called, is rather a gulph, from ſeven to eighteen miles broad, generally about nine fathoms deep, running 300 miles into the continent, and parting the countries of Virginia and Maryland. The Gulph of Mexico is an immenſe baſon, the entrance of which, between the peninſulas of Florida and Yucatan, is divided into two channels by the vaſt iſland of Cuba. The portion of the ocean which lies without the gulph, and is terminated eaſtward by the chain of the Caribbee iſlands, is termed the Caribbean Sea. Southward of this the Atlantic ſends forth no long branches into either continent; the greateſt on the ſide of America, if we except the mouths of the great rivers, being the Gulph of Venezuela, which ſeems hardly ſo large as that of Cheſapeak; while, on the African ſide, the Bite of Guinea, is, though a very wide, yet, not a proportionally deep bay, formed by the curvature of the land.

Inlets of the Pacific.

None of the arms, which the Pacific ſends into either continent, is equal in magnitude to the Mediterranean or the Gulph of Labrador, which branches from the Atlantic. From that vaſt portion of the Pacific which is named the Indian Ocean runs the Red Sea || towards the north-weſt, in a length of about 2000 miles, ſeparating Arabia from the African coaſt, and forking at its northern extre-

|| The name of Red Sea was given by the ancients indefinitely to the neighbouring ocean.

mity

mity into two bays of conſiderable depth. All of this extenſive ſea northward of the narroweſt part, which is called the Strait of Babel-Mandel, from a ſmall iſland of that name, may be termed the Arabian Gulph. This ſtrait, about eighteen leagues broad, is divided into two; the eaſtern two leagues in breadth, with a depth of about fifteen fathoms, and the weſtern three leagues broad, about twenty-five fathoms deep, more dangerous to navigators by its numerous low iſlets. The Red Sea has a ſenſible flux and reflux, as, receiving hardly any river, it is ſupplied with water entirely from the ocean, and expands to no great breadth of ſurface. It is a ſea of dangerous navigation, for, excepting the middle part longitudinally conſidered, it abounds in rocks and ſhoals, and is almoſt deſtitute of harbours; as, to the ſouth of Tor, only two are to be found, Judda and Coſire, the latter of which is very bad, yet the only one on all the weſtern coaſt *: Nor, from April to October can ſhips attempt to enter it with ſafety, as all that time a northerly wind almoſt inceſſantly prevails; but during the reſt of the year it is ſubject to more variable gales †, which however blow moſtly from about the ſouth. The breadth of the Arabian gulph is in ſome places above ninety leagues. Its depth is enormous; hardly any ſoundings being found in the main channel, nor even, in ſome places, within a few yards of the

* See Montague's account in the Anuual Regiſter for the year 1767.

† Montague as above, Rooke's Voyage, &c.

ſhores

ſhores, particularly on the weſtern ſide, where many ſteep rocks riſe out of the water; but on the eaſtern vaſt quantities of ſand are commonly collected around the inſulated rocks, ſo as to form a multitude of barren iſlets. The Perſian Sea, ſeparating the Arabian from the Perſian coaſt, is, near the ſmall iſle of Ormus, contracted into its narroweſt part called the Strait of Mocandon, whence it enlarges within land to the breadth of 170 miles. This inner part, famous for its fiſhery of pearls, the greateſt quantity of which are found at the iſland of Baharen, is named the gulph of Perſia, or of Baſſora. The part which lies without the ſtrait has been improperly termed the Gulph of Ormus. The tract of ocean which bounds Hindoſtan on the weſt, and from which the Arabian and Perſian Gulphs proceed, has received the appellation of the Arabian Sea. An extenſive ſea, called the Bay of Bengal, divides from each other the two famous Indian peninſulas. The gulph or bay of Siam is an opening in the more eaſtern of theſe peninſulas; and here commences what is termed the China Sea, ſituate between China, on one ſide, and the vaſt iſland of Borneo on the other; a part of which, received within a curved flexure of the land, is named the Gulph of Cochinchina, or Bay of Tonking.

The Yellow Sea, or Whang-hay of the Chineſe, running between China and the Corean peninſula, forms an interior gulph, which takes the name of Lee-o-tong, from the country which bounds it on the north. The ſea of Okotſk is a wide gulph, which, dividing the peninſula of Kamtſchatka from the main land

land of Tartary, narrows to the north, and forms two ſeparate arms, the more eaſtern of which is termed the Penſhinean Sea, the more weſtern the Bay of Ingeekinſk. What is called the Gulph of Anadyr, ſeems rather a bay on the ſouthern ſide of the peninſula.

America receives few great inlets from the Pacific. Its coaſts, which toward the north are waſhed by this ocean, wind with various flexures, which have not as yet been inveſtigated with accuracy; but it is certain that no arms of the deep penetrate there far into the land ‡. Farther ſouth we find the Vermilion Sea, called alſo the Gulf of California, which appears to be a bay, about 900 miles in length, flowing between the Californian peninſula and the main. The principal curvature which the coaſt makes to the ſouth of this, is that wherein lie the bays of Panama and Buenaventura. A channel 300 miles long, and from ſix to near 30 broad, named the Strait of Magalhaens or Magellan, runs quite acroſs from the Pacific to the Atlantic, diſſevering the Terra del Fuego from the continent §,

‡ See Cook's Laſt Voyage.

§ See Wallis' Voyage, written by Hawkſworth.

SECTION

SECTION THE SECOND.

UNEVENNESS OF THE EARTH'S SURFACE—MOUNTAINS—OF EUROPE AND ASIA—OF AFRICA—OF AMERICA.

Uneven Surface.

THE uneven line, which dubiouſly marks the divided empires of earth and ocean, is not more tortuous and irregular, than is the ſurface of the land; here ſmooth with plains, or gently ſwelling with eaſy undulations; there elevated and rough with mountains, many of whoſe ſummits, which with awful ſublimity ſeem to ſcale the heavens, remain inacceſſible to man and beaſt. Nor is the bottom of the ocean, or of its arms, exempt from this inequality: Submarine mountains, hills, and broad tracts of ground, ariſe with various degrees of elevation; ſome remaining deeply immerſed, and others approaching the ſurface in ſuch manner as to occaſion ſhoals or ſhallows. But many tracts, emerging from the waves, form a vaſt variety of iſlands, ſolitary or in groups.—Of thoſe many ſhoals, which lie both in the ſeas and ocean, and of which not a few riſe ſo high as to prove obſtacles to navigation, particularly in the ſpace of ocean which bounds the eaſtern ſide of New Holland, one of the moſt noted is the Great Bank of Newfoundland, ſituate ſouth-eaſtward of that iſland in the Atlantic, and

and ſuppoſed to extend near 500 miles in length, and above 200 in breadth, with a various, but ſhallow, covering of water. Many of the iſlands riſe to ſuch a pitch above the ſurrounding deep, that their moſt elevated pikes almoſt vie in ſublimity with ſome of the higheſt mountains of either continent. In this number is the Peak of Teneriffe in the Atlantic, ſuppoſed to have an elevation of much more than 4000 yards above the level of the ocean ‖, and that of Mouna Kaah in the Pacific, whoſe height above the ſame cannot be leſs than 6000 yards, as, though ſeated within the torrid zone, it is cloathed with perpetual ſnow *. But though great numbers of mountains, both inſular and continental, are of an altitude quite aſtoniſhing to human ſight, and would be ſtill far more ſtupendous could the eye command at once their whole elevation, the greater part of which is generally concealed by their gradual, and often irregular aſcent; yet, as the ſummits of but few in compariſon are elevated more than two Engliſh miles in a perpendicular line above the level of the ocean, or the ordinary ſurface of the earth; and none, ſo far as we know, ſo much as four; their heights bear ſo ſmall a proportion to the radius of the globe, that the real inequality, cauſed by them on its face, is not greater than that of duſt or ſand ſcattered on the ſurface of an artificial ſphere twelve inches in diameter.

‖ See in this work an account of the Canary Iſlands.

* See in this work an account of the Sandwich Iſlands.

Concerning

Mountains.

Concerning not only the internal ſtructure, but alſo the exterior form and arrangement, of thoſe humps and excreſcences, which cauſe ſuch a variety in the ſurface of our globe, ingenious men have formed different theories; each, in ſupport of his favourite hypotheſis, drawing too general concluſions from partial obſervations. Almoſt all theſe magnificent ſyſtems, ſpeciouſly raiſed on very ſlender foundations, are overturned at once by the occurrence of various natural phenomena; nor is it probable that a complete knowledge of this ſubject will be acquired for ages to come †. The internal compoſition of the earth and of its protuberances is not ſo immediately the object of the geographer; whoſe province, in this buſineſs, is to collect, as far as he is able, whatever authentic information may tend to elucidate the ſituation, arrangement, form, and height of the principal chains of mountains, and give a conciſe general account thereof to his reader; though all the knowledge, which can be as yet acquired on this ſubject, is extremely limited, defective, and unſatisfactory.

In general the land both of the two immenſe continents, and of the numerous iſlands, riſes from the ſhores, with a ſlow, irregular, and moſtly imperceptible aſcent, to ſome interior parts, which, by

† By far the moſt probable ſyſtem, (except that of De Luc,) as being founded on the moſt extenſive obſervations, and advanced with caution, is that of the Profeſſor Pallas of Peterſburg, which may be ſeen at the end of the 3d volume of Tooke's Ruſſia, called Obſervations on the Formation of Mountains.

their ſuperior elevation, collect the vapours exhaled from the deep, and give a deſcent to rivers, by whoſe channels the redundant water is conveyed back to the ocean. Where we can trace the original ſources of the principal rivers which fall into oppoſite ſeas, we may find the moſt elevated part of what may be called the plan of the ſoil, by which is here meant the ſurface of the land, conſidered abſtractedly from the height of mountainous protuberances whoſe baſes lie in it. But this determines nothing with reſpect to the abſolute or even relative height of theſe protuberances, as thoſe whoſe baſes lie conſiderable below the ſources of rivers, may yet with their ſummits far overtop, not only theſe ſources, but alſo other mountains, which ſtand on baſes of a much more elevated poſition. Their altitudes above the neighbouring plains, or above the level of the ocean, can only be obtained by trigonometry, or the lately improved methods of meaſuring heights by the barometer: but extremely few are the mountains to which any accurate modes of menſuration have been applied, nor is the number by any means conſiderable of thoſe, which can in other reſpects be deſcribed with any tolerable degree of ſatisfaction.

Mountains of Europe and Aſia.

From more than one kind of phenomena it appears, that in the northern peninſula of the Old Continent, which peninſula conſiſts of Europe and Aſia, the plan of the ſoil attains its greateſt elevation in that extenſive deſert of Great Tartary, which, under the names of Gobi and Shamo, borders Tibet on the north, and ſtretches thence toward the con-

fines of China and Siberia. This deſert is a ſandy plain of vaſt extent, interſperſed with low hills, and ſurrounded, particularly on the north and ſouth, with chains of mountains, whoſe baſes ſink lower by gradation the farther they recede from the deſert within, and whoſe declivities on the ſouth toward the Indias, and on the north toward Siberia, are much longer than on thoſe ſides which face the included plain *. From the groups of mountains around the Gobi ariſe the main ſources of the great rivers which flow through Aſia in all directions, to the Arctic Sea, the Pacific Ocean, the Indian Seas, the Lake Aral and other baſons in the weſtern deſerts of Great Tartary. From theſe ſublime regions the plan of this immenſe peninſula declines rapidly to the Chineſe and Indian ſhores, with a very gentle and almoſt regular declivity northward to the Frozen Ocean, but with the utmoſt irregularity and an extremely ſlow declination, weſtward and northweſtward, to the Atlantic and the White Sea.

The vaſt rugged eminences around the Gobi form one of the moſt powerful ſyſtems of mountains on the face of our planet, the branches or chains of which ſeem to tend to ſeveral collected centers, or, as it were, common naves, which, towering aloft with ſuperior majeſty, ſurpaſs theſe

* See the above-mentioned Obſervations of Pallas on the Formation of Mountains.——The ſame is confirmed on the ſouthern ſide by Bogle in his Journey to Tibet. See the Annual Regiſter 1778.

chains

chains in real height †. Thoſe tremendous groups of mountains, crowned with perpetual ſnow, between Gobi and India, with which the countries of Tibet and Caſhemiria are ſtudded, and which have been denominated the Alps of Tibet, ſeem to be the naves, whence diverge thoſe great and numerous ranges, which traverſe the Chineſe provinces to the eaſt, the two Indian peninſulas to the ſouth, and Perſia to the weſt. From theſe vaſt Alps of Tibet, which with ſome of their weſtern branches ſeem to have been the Mons Imaus of the Ancients, runs a chain called the Mountains of Mouſſart northward to Mount Bogdo, which, ſtanding on the northern ſide of the Gobi towards the weſt, riſes far above the line of perpetual ſnow, and overtops all the mountains far around, conſtituting one of thoſe mighty naves, which the rays, or mountainous ranges, which traverſe the interior of Aſia, regard as their centers.

From Mount Bogdo, beſide the mountains of Mouſſart, run three other chains. One, under the appellation of Alak, runs to the weſt between the deſert of the independent Tartars and Bukaria, communicating by ſecondary ridges with the great ridge Oulou Taou, which riſes in the middle of the Tartarian deſert, and proceeds toward the mountains of Perſia. "Another under the name of Khan-ghai takes its courſe right to the eaſt, between the region of Ortus, or Barkol and Mongolia; fills this laſt with rocks and high mountains;

† See Pallas's Obſervations, as above.

then, under the changed name of Kin-ghan, divides the waters of the Amoor from thoſe of the Ho-an-ho, and at length concludes in the rounded chain which forms Korea, and in the breakers and iſles ſituate near Japan ‡." But the greateſt of thoſe chains which diverge from Bogdo is that of Altäi, which, riſing in many places to the region of permanent ſnow, runs with a winding courſe eaſtward, but inclined to the north, bounding Siberia on the ſouth from the river Irtiſh to the Amoor; between which river, the great lake of Bäikal, and the river Lena, it ſtretches to the north-eaſt, after forming a junction with a branch of the Khan-ghai, and proceeds along the ſea of Okotſk, where it ends by diſtributing itſelf into branches which ſpread between the moſt eaſtern rivers of Siberia which fall into the Frozen Ocean; beſide two principal branches, one of which forms the north-eaſtern extremity of the Old Continent, called the Promontory of the Tchutſki, and is ſuppoſed to be continued by a marine chain to the mountains of America; the other turning ſouth, runs over all the peninſula of Kamtſchatka, and ſeems to proceed by the marine chain of the Kurile Iſlands to Japan, abounding, both in the continent and in the iſlands, with volcanic mountains, ſome of which continue to emit flames, and others bear the veſtiges of former conflagrations.

Of the chains of mountains which depart weſtward from the vaſt Alps of Tibet to traverſe the

‡ Pallas' Obſervations on the Formation of Mountains.

Perſian

Perſian territories, a principal one takes its courſe around the ſouthern coaſts of the Caſpian Sea, and joins a celebrated chain, denominated Caucaſus both by Ancients and Moderns, which, running from the Caſpian weſtward to the Euxine Sea, riſes with its pikes far above the region of permanent ſnow, and by its ſecondary ridges ſpreads to a vaſt breadth. A plain of vaſt extent bounds Caucaſus on the north, ſtretching toward the north-eaſt; but from the ſouthern ſide of this mighty chain proceed many branches, ſome of which communicate with the lofty chains of the Armenian mountains. The laſt, among which is mount Ararat, have a tendency in general from the eaſt toward the weſt, and ſeem to form a continuity eaſtward with the mountains of Perſia already mentioned. From Caucaſus ſeem to ariſe the chains of Taurus and Antitaurus, which, uniting in the ſouth-eaſt of Anatolia, run weſtward, through the ſouthern parts of that peninſula, to the coaſt oppoſite to the Iſle of Rhodes. The vaſt ridge of Caucaſus is ſuppoſed alſo to be connected, by means of the Armenian Mountains, with the Syrian Chain, which is famous under the names of Lebanon and Antilebanon, and is ſaid to be continued ſouthward quite to Yemen, the ſouthern part of Arabia.

Some have imagined the chain of Caucaſus prolonged to the weſt acroſs the Strait of Zabaſh, the ſouthern part of the Crimean peninſula, and thence by a ſubmarine chain through the Euxine Sea to the ridge of Balcan, which is the celebrated Mount Hæmus of the Ancients. This long ridge, which

bounds

bounds Thrace and Macedon on the north, and like Caucaſus takes a weſterly direction, ſeems to be continued by lower ridges between the river Danube and the Adriatic Sea to the Italian Alps: while, northward of the Danube, the Crapac or Carpathian chain, dividing Poland from Tranſilvania and Hungary, and running nearly in the ſame direction as the Balcan, approaches the mountains which environ Bohemia, and ſeems to form a junction with them, whence an inferior ridge appears to run to another part of the ſame vaſt chain of Italian Alps. Of the branches ariſing from the Balcan, one, which runs ſouthward into Greece, is underſtood to proceed through the Morea, and thence by a marine chain through the iſles of Candia and Rhodes to Mount Taurus in Anatolia.

The Italian Alps, or the Alps properly ſo called, are the higheſt mountains of Europe, vaſt and precipitous, whence other chains of the like nature, which are ſuppoſed to be of the firſt rank with reſpect to magnitude, are alſo denominated Alps. This renowned chain forms a vaſt curve, or nearly a ſemicircle, from the northern ſhores of the Adriatic to that part of the Mediterranean which waſhes the coaſt of France, with its concave ſide toward the peninſula of Italy which it ſecludes from the main continent, and ſpreads to a conſiderable width by lateral chains, which diminiſh in height as they recede on both ſides from the main ridge *. The Alps attain their greateſt height in

* See, in Coxe's Sketches of Switzerland, General Pfiffer's Model in Relief.

Switzerland and Savoy, particularly in the parts of theſe two countries which border on each other. Here the mountain of Schereckhorn, in the canton of Berne, raiſes its head to the height of about 4800 yards above the level of the ſea, and here Mount Blanc in Savoy, the higheſt of the Alps, riſes in form of a cone or immenſe obeliſk, ſtupendous to behold, glazed all over with ſhining ice, to the elevation of 5220 yards above the ſame level †. In the Alps the line of perpetual ſnow is ſuppoſed to lie 3000 yards above the ocean's level, beſides that the glaciers, or vaſt maſſes of permanent ice, deſcend in many places far lower, from the ſides of the mountains into the vallies ‡. The region ever white with ſnow, which occupies the higher parts of theſe vaſt mountains, is environed in moſt places by a gloomy foreſt of great mountain pines, which form, as it were, a ſable zone finely contraſted to the ſnow above. From the ſouthern part of the Alpine chain near the Mediterranean runs a branch of vaſt length, called the Appennine Ridge, which takes its courſe through the entire length of Italy, and is ſuppoſed to croſs the Strait of Meſſina into the Iſle of Sicily. Excepting the interruption made by the channel of the Rhone, the concatenation of the Alps extends, by intermediate hills, to the lofty Pyrenean chain, which runs in an almoſt rectili-

† This is the mean of the three moſt accurate menſurations, viz. thoſe of Sir George Schuckborough, Monſieur de Sauſſure, and Monſieur de Luc.

‡ For the glaciers, ſee Switzerland.

neal

neal courſe from the Mediterranean to the ocean, tending from the eaſt toward the weſt between France and the peninſula of Spain, abounding in glaciers, and accompanied by many bands or lateral chains which riſe with a much more ſteep acclivity on the ſouth on the ſide of Spain, than on the north on the ſide of France. The higheſt pikes of this auguſt range of mountains, commonly called the Pyrenees, are elevated at leaſt three thouſand four hundred yards above the plan of the ocean. Maladetta, which ſeems to be the ſummit of the whole chain, is probably much higher §.

The vaſt Altäian ridge, which forms for ſo conſiderable a way the Siberian frontier on the South, whence northward to the Frozen Ocean the land ſeems to be moſtly an inſenſibly ſhelving plain, meets by ſecondary branches and low hills toward the weſt with the extremities of the great Uralian chain. This vaſt ridge, known imperfectly to the Ancients under the name of the Riphæan mountains, ſeems to collect its principal force about the ſources of the river Yäik or Ural, and thoſe of the Bieläia; whence it diminiſhes to the ſouth, diſtributing itſelf in little concatenations eaſtward and weſtward, toward the borders of the lake Aral and Southern Ruſſia. Northward alſo it diminiſhes, particularly in height, from this place of its chief magnitude, as far as the heads of the river Tura; but, augmenting thence, it fills with very high mountains

§ Obſervations faites dans les Pyrenées par Monſieur Ramond de Carbonnieres.

the

the ſpace which lies between the ſources of the river Tauda on one ſide, and thoſe of the Kama and Petſchora on the other. At length it ends by gradual diminution, but always rugged with rocks, toward the Frozen Ocean, forming the great promontory on the weſtern ſide of the gulph which receives the river Ob, whence a branch is ſuppoſed to croſs the Strait of Waigatz to Nova Zembla, and to meet a branch running in like manner from the Scandinavian Alps ‖.

The immenſe chain, which is here denominated the Scandinavian Alps, makes nearly the figure of a horſe's ſhoe, and ſeems to ariſe to its greateſt height in Lapland, which it croſſes from the eaſt toward the weſt, and whence it runs toward the ſouth, on one ſide through the eaſtern parts of Norway, and on the other through Finland to the vaſt Lakes of Ladoga and Onega, where it ends in hills of no great ſize. The part of Europe which contains this mighty chain is almoſt an iſland, the ground between the Gulph of Finland and the White Sea being low, and in great part occupied by lakes. From theſe great Alps a chain tends to the north, which is ſuſpected to be continued through the north Cape of Norwegian Lapland and the marine chain of Spitzberg, to meet the marine chain of Nova Zembla, and to ſtretch through the Arctic Sea by breakers and iſles even to the American continent.

‖ See for an account of the Uralian Chain, Pallas's Obſervations on the Formation of Mountains.

Hardly

Mountains of Africa.

Hardly any doubt can be entertained that tracts, not inferior in elevation even to that of Gobi, are to be found in Africa, which conſtitutes the ſouthern peninſula of the Old Continent; but the plan of this vaſt peninſula cannot be inveſtigated until its interior regions be explored, which as yet are totally unknown. Yet, from the Nile, and thoſe rivers which fall into the ocean, of whoſe ſources we are entirely ignorant, and with but a ſmall part of whoſe channels we have any knowledge, we may hazard a conjecture, that the higheſt region of Africa lies toward the eaſt about Abyſſinia, perhaps on the ſouth of that country; that thence the plan of the ſoil falls rapidly to the Red Sea and the Eaſtern Ocean, more gently northward to the Egyptian ſhores, with extreme ſlowneſs and irregularity to the coaſts of Morocco and Nigritia, but, that ſouthward from Abyſſinia the land continues prodigiouſly high between the two oceans, and from its interior height declines with great rapidity to the ſhores on each ſide, eſpecially the weſtern.

It is highly probable that many vaſt chains of mountains, of which Europeans are totally ignorant, traverſe the interior of this famous, but little known, diviſion of the globe. Thoſe of which we have received any notice are not deſcribed by any author on whom we can rely. An immenſe chain is ſaid to run through Ethiopia, called by ſome the Mountains of Monomotapa, in a direction from north to ſouth. This chain is ſaid to commence even at the iſthmus of Suez, and, running ſouthward

ſouthward almoſt in the manner of a wall, at the diſtance of forty miles from the Arabian gulph and parallel to it, to divide, about the latitude of thirteen degrees north, into two vaſt branches; one of which runs ſouthward parallel to the Indian ocean quite through the continent; the other weſtward along the northern borders of Abyſſinia toward the Atlantic. A chain in the maritime country of Congo, runs from Cape Negro toward the north-eaſt, rearing its lofty ſummits, even in that ardent climate, into the region of ſnow, and augmenting in height as it advances to the equator. The mountains of Sierra Leona tend eaſtward between Nigritia and Guinea, and are ſuſpected to continue their courſe even to Abyſſinia. Perhaps both theſe and the mountains of Cape Negro may branch from the ſame vaſt ſyſtem with thoſe of Monomotapa. On the ſouth of Morocco appears Mount Atlas, from which the Atlantic Ocean is ſuppoſed to derive its name, and, tending eaſtward, is ſaid to ſtretch, but with many breaks or openings, through a length of 3000 miles to the borders of Egypt, and to riſe ſo high in many places as to be crowned with ſnow during the greater part of the year *.

Whatever connexion may ſubſiſt between the Old and New Continents, by chains of marine mountains, muſt chiefly take place in the Frozen Ocean or the northern part of the Pacific; but thoſe tracts of North America, by which is meant the northern peninſula of the New Continent, whoſe Mountains of America.

* For the ſmaller Atlas ſee Barbary.

mountains

mountains may be in continuity with ſuch chains, remain as yet entirely unexplored. Europeans are much better acquainted with the ſouthern peninſula of this continent called South America, the land of which riſes on the weſtern ſide to a prodigious height; the territories of it which border the Pacific Ocean being traverſed by an immenſe chain of mountains, called the Andes or Cordillieras †, the loftieſt of all, whoſe altitudes are known, on the face of our globe, and extending from ſouth to north a length of about 4500 miles, from the Strait of Magalhaens, through the iſthmus of Darien, even into North America. This enormous range, of which the marine chain or inſular cluſter of Terra del Fuego ſeems to be a continuation, ſpreads in many places to the breadth of 80 or even 120 miles, flaming here and there with volcanos, of which 16 are ſaid to be in Chili, and riſing even in the torrid zone above the line of perpetual congelation, or into the region of perennial ſnow, the elevations of many of its mountains above the ocean's level being 6000 yards, and that of Chimborazo in particular in the country of Peru more than 6700 yards, or near four Engliſh miles, above the ſame level. Among the ſummits of theſe amazing mountains are vallies of prodigious height, the principal of which is that of Quito, commonly reckoned a part of Peru, about 30 miles broad between two chains of ſummits, which is the moſt elevated plain of all

† Cordillera in Spaniſh ſignifies a range of mountains, but Andes is the proper name of theſe vaſt eminences.

South

South America. A branch of the Andes, declining a little toward the north-eaſt, joins the mountains of Saint Martha in Terra Firma, which are probably inferior in height to none of thoſe which form the main ridge, their ſummits, as it is ſaid, being viſible at ſea at the diſtance of near 200 miles. Northward from Quito, the immenſe chain of the Andes contracts itſelf into a comparatively ſmall breadth to paſs the iſthmus of Darien, but thence enlarging with the continent, and traverſing the Mexican territories, it diſtributes itſelf by various ramifications in North America.

From the ſummits of the Andes weſtward to the ocean is an almoſt continued and quick deſcent, which is rendered more irregular by a far inferior chain, called the Sierras, which accompanies that of the Andes in its courſe near 3000 miles, running moſtly parallel to that immenſe chain between it and the Pacific. On the eaſtern ſide, the Andes from Terra Firma to about the ſouthern tropic are moſtly bounded by immenſe plains, which almoſt at once expoſe to the eye the aſtoniſhing height of theſe mountains, ſeparated by deep chaſms, which ſeem to ſink to a depth more profound in proportion as the ſummits are more ſublime ‡. Theſe plains extend towards the Atlantic with an extremely ſlow declination, and almoſt the whole way along the coaſt of that ocean, but meet with ſome interruptions in their progreſs eaſtward by chains of mountains, which may perhaps branch

‡ Ulloa's Noticias Americanas.

from

from the vaſt Cordillieras, or have a connexion with them. Such is a long chain on the weſt of Brazil, from the ſouthern part of which ſome conſiderable branches run northward into that country.

As the greater part of North America is totally unknown, no judgment can be formed concerning the plan of this immenſe peninſula. Doubtleſs it riſes to its higheſt platform in its unknown parts, perhaps north-weſtward of the main channels of the vaſt rivers Miſſiſſippi and Saint Lawrence. A vaſt range, to a part of which lying weſtward of the river Saint Pierre, an auxiliar ſtream of the Miſſiſſippi, the appellation of Shining Mountains is given, from cryſtal ſtones with which they are in a great proportion covered, is ſaid to run from Mexico northward above 3000 miles, parting the waters which flow eaſtward to the Miſſiſſippi from thoſe which take a weſtern courſe to the Pacific Ocean §. Perhaps this mighty chain is a continuation of the unparalleled range of the Andes, or communicates with its branches by inferior concatenations.

The region of North America, beſt known to Europeans, is that which is on one ſide bordered by the Atlantic Ocean, and elſewhere by the rivers Miſſiſſippi and Saint Lawrence. That which may well be called the ſpine of this region is the great chain of Apalachian or Alleganey Mountains, which tends northward, like all the great American chains

§ Carver's Travels in North America.

with

with which we are acquainted, ſeparating the waters of the Miſſiſſippi from thoſe of the rivers which flow eaſtward to the Atlantic. This great chain, conſiſting of vaſt parallel ridges, is bounded on the weſt by plains of immenſe extent, but on the eaſt by a country the plan of which falls with conſiderable declination, croſſed by uniform ridges, in which no elevated pikes appear, running parallel to the great ridge, but on leſs elevated baſes, and pierced through in many places by rivers which ſeem to have forced a paſſage through thoſe vaſt mounds. ——Theſe lower ridges form a chain about 900 miles long, which bears in its different parts, among other appellations, thoſe of the Pignut and Kittatinny Mountains ‖. Eaſtward of theſe ridges, whoſe baſes are elevated about 800 feet above the ocean, all to the Atlantic is a ſhelving plain.

‖ Conſult the Tours of Burnaby, Smyth, Chaſtellux, &c. in North America; alſo Morſe's American Geography.

SECTION

SECTION THE THIRD.

RIVERS AND LAKES—OF ASIA AND EUROPE—OF AFRICA—OF AMERICA—FALLS OF NIAGARA.

Rivers. THE vapours which float in the atmoſphere, and are collected by the elevated parts of the land, are variouſly diſpoſed, according to the nature and height of the ground, for the ſupply of thoſe innumerable rivers, which, gliding with various meanders, contribute ſo highly to beautify the face of the earth, and ſerve in ſo many ways to the convenience of its inhabitants. Thoſe tremendous chains and groups of mountains, which in many parts of the globe rear their rugged heads above the limit of perpetual congelation, which limit varies with the climate in its elevation above the ocean's level, are loaded throughout the year with enormous maſſes of ice and ſnow, which however diminiſhed by ſolution on one hand, are as much augmented by accretion on the other, ſo as to be regarded as fixed or permanent. Theſe regions of glaciers and eternal winter are the immenſe reſervoirs whence many mighty ſtreams derive their main ſources. Hence it happens that ſome rivers in the temperate zones are, by the ſolution of the ſnows in ſummer, more turgid in that ſeaſon when evaporations

evaporations are greateſt, the rains leaſt copious, and when conſequently their ſtreams might be ſuppoſed loweſt. More commonly rivers originate from thoſe vapours which fall in rain, and are collected in hollows or natural baſons formed in the uneven ground, or burſt forth in ſprings from the over-ſaturated earth. Such a multitude of brooks and larger ſtreams are combined to form a great river, that it is in general a matter of extreme difficulty to trace its primary or original ſource. Springs and rivulets concentring their waters in large hollows or depreſſions of the earth, generate lakes of various extent. The ſame are alſo formed by large rivers, when they meet in their courſe with ſuch depreſſions or natural baſons, which they fill with their waters. The inequality of the earth's ſurface, which cauſes the meandring of rivers and the formation of lakes, occaſions alſo, aided by ſubſtratums of rock, thoſe noble cataracts or waterfalls, which are in ſo extraordinary a degree the objects of delight and aſtoniſhment. Rivers, by the nature of the ground through which they flow, are ſubject alſo to another kind of accident. Some of them totally diſappear for a time, abſorbed by the porous earth, or ingulphed in ſubterraneous caverns of rock, whence they moſtly emerge again to the light and continue their courſe. Phenomena of this kind are not ſo uncommon as people are apt to ſuppoſe. Inſtances occur in many parts of the globe. Some are found in the Britiſh iſlands; and no leſs than five conſiderable ſtreams are deſcribed in the ſingle province of Normandy in

France, which ſink and reappear in this manner. The principal of the great rivers which water the continents, and ſuch of their lakes as expand to a vaſt extent, or are not confined within the limits of particular countries, are here briefly to be noticed. The plan of this work admits not a minute account, if even all ſatisfactory information could in every inſtance be obtained.

Rivers and lakes of Aſia and Europe.

The northern ſlope of Aſia is interſected by an immenſe multitude of ſtreams, moſt of which are received into the channels of the Oby, the Yeniſëi, the Lena, and the Amoor, rivers of prodigious magnitude, by which their waters are conveyed to the ocean. So commodious for navigation are theſe vaſt rivers and their influent ſtreams, and ſuch is their ſituation with reſpect to each other, and thoſe European rivers which flow to the Caſpian and Euxine Seas, that it ſeems not impoſſible to tranſport goods by water from the Baltic Sea to the Pacific Ocean, quite acroſs the Continent, through a length of between 5000 and 6000 miles, with ſo few and ſo ſmall interruptions of land-carriage, that perhaps all taken together may not much exceed 100 miles; and the like navigation might be made with not very much more interruption from the Euxine Sea. The Oby, the Yeniſëi, and the Lena are the greateſt rivers of the Old Continent, at leaſt of its northern peninſula. The firſt of theſe, called alſo the Ob, of which the Irtis is to be regarded as one of the original ſtreams, takes its ſource in the Altäian Mountains, and after a northerly courſe of above 3000 miles,

miles, falls with a vaſt ſtream, formed by the combined waters of prodigious numbers of ſubſidiary rivers, into the Frozen Ocean, which here ſends an arm into the land, called the Gulph of Obſkaia. The Yeniſëi and Lena derive alſo their ſources from the Altäian chain, and flowing in channels nearly parallel to each other, and not very different in direction from that of the Ob, to which they are little inferior in length of courſe or body of water, are received by the ſame ocean. The Angara, one of the chief original ſtreams of the Yeniſëi, which is called alſo the Jeniſa, meets in its courſe with a vaſt baſon environed with the branches of the Altäian mountains; and thus with other ſtreams, particularly the Selinga, forms an immenſe lake, commonly called the Baikal Sea, 300 miles long and above 50 broad, whence it again iſſues and purſues its courſe. The Amoor, the component ſtreams of which ariſe from the Altäian chain and that of Khanghai, runs eaſtward, and is received by the ſea of Okotſk after a courſe of more than 2000 miles.

The Ho-an-ho, or Yellow River of China, and the Kiam, or Blue River, derive their original ſources from thoſe immenſe groups of mountains, which border the Gobi on the ſouth, and have been called the Tibetan Alps. They both run eaſtward to the ocean, the former making a courſe of above 2000 miles, the latter above 2500, including their meanders. From the ſame tremendous chains of mountains ariſe the Mecon and Ava, rivers which, running ſouthward through the far-

ther Indian peninſula, wind through a courſe of little leſs than 2000 miles. From the ſame immenſe Alps, but much farther to the weſt than the ſources of the two laſt mentioned ſtreams, and much higher within land towards the moſt elevated platform of Aſia, ariſe the two vaſt navigable rivers of Barompooter and Ganges, from the ſame tract of mountains very near each other in the country of Tibet; and diverging widely aſunder, the one to the eaſt, the other to the weſt, they again converge and meet, after a meandering of above 2000 miles in each; the Ganges diſcharging its waters into the Bay of Bengal by two main, beſides many ſmaller, channels near 200 miles aſunder, into the eaſtern of which it receives the Barompooter. Farther weſt ariſes the Indus from the ſame vaſt Alps, and receiving ſeveral fine rivers in the upper part of its courſe, but none in the lower, as it there paſſes through a level country, it enters the Arabian ſea, after a courſe of about 1400 miles, by ſeveral channels, the principal one of which is named the river of Mehran. From the vaſt chains of Armenia, which, by the medium of the Perſian mountains, appear to be in continuity with the Alps of Tibet, iſſue the Tigris and Euphrates, celebrated rivers, which running with great rapidity, more eſpecially the former, firſt diverge, and at laſt unite into one great navigable ſtream, called the Shat-el-Arab, or the Phrat, which runs ſouthward into the Perſian Gulph. The Tigris, whoſe violent ſtream falls in many cataracts, runs for ſome ſpace a ſubterraneous courſe under a ridge of mountains. Its winding

ing channel may be 900 miles in length before its conjunction with the Euphrates; but that of the latter, including the Phrat, can be ſcarcely leſs than 1600.

From the weſtern confines of the Gobi ſpring the Syr-Darya and Amu-Darya, rivers which, by a weſterly courſe of above 1000 miles each, enter what is called the ſea of Aral, an immenſe lake ſaid to be 300 miles long, and 150 broad, which has no outlet for its waters, but counterbalances the influx of theſe rivers by evaporation. Weſt of this lake is another ſtill more immenſe, called the Caſpian Sea, which likewiſe has no outlet, above 650 miles long and 250 broad, abounding in ſhallows ſo as not to be navigable, without danger, to veſſels of great burden, and bounded on the north by low plains, but on the ſouth with high coaſts and a country full of huge mountains *. From the nature of the lands to the north of this immenſe baſon, the ſurface of which is conſiderably below the ocean's level, hardly any doubt can be entertained that the Caſpian or Hyrcanian Sea, as it was termed by the Ancients, occupied a far greater ſpace than at preſent, in which was included the lake of Aral †. Of all the rivers which diſcharge their

* See Coxe's Travels in Ruſſia, Bruce's Memoirs, Hanway's Travels, &c.

† It is alſo extremely probable that the Caſpian had a communication with the Euxine Sea. See an account of the Caſpian in the fourth volume of Tooke's Ruſſia, Tournefort's Voyage, &c. Dr. Robertſon is cenſured by the critical reviewers

their waters into this great receptacle by far the greateſt is the Volga, whoſe original ſtream ſprings from the moſt elevated platform of Ruſſia, that is, the level tract in which Moſcow ſtands; but it alſo receives a great ſubſidiary ſtream, called the Kama, which riſes, like ſome other of its component rivers, from the Uralian mountains. The Volga, anciently called Rha, running eaſt and ſouth an even and uninterrupted courſe of near 3000 miles, diſcharges its waters by a greater number of mouths than any known river in the world, as it divides itſelf into above 70 channels in entering the Caſpian Sea. This great river is ſo full of iſlands and ſhoals, as to be extremely dangerous to navigate, except in the months of May and June, when ſhips of conſiderable burden can ſail on it with ſecurity; its influent ſtreams, particularly thoſe which come from the north, bringing into it at that time ſuch a quantity of water by the melting of the ſnows, that it ſwells far beyond its ordinary channel, and overflows all the adjacent low lands, whoſe fertility is augmented by this inundation ‡.

The ſame high tract of Ruſſia, whence the Volga derives its origin, gives ſource alſo to the Don and the Nieper; both of which flow ſouthward; the

ers for having ſuppoſed in his Account of Ancient India, that the Caſpian formerly received ſome rivers on its eaſtern ſide. The miſtake, as it often happens, was not in the hiſtorian, but in the reviewers, who knew not that the ancient ſtate of this ſea was very different from the preſent.

‡ See a curious account of this river and its fiſheries in the fourth volume of Tooke's Ruſſia.

former,

former, called Tanais by the Ancients, into the Sea of Azof after a courſe of near 1000 miles; the latter farther weſt into the Euxine at Kinburn. The Nieper, denominated anciently Boryſthenes, the length of whoſe winding ſtream may probably be above 1300 miles, falls, after it receives the tributary waters of the Samara, for near 40 miles, in a ſeries of Rapids or ſmall cataracts. But by far the greateſt of the ſtreams received by the Euxine, and, excepting the Volga, the greateſt river of Europe, is the Danube, called alſo Danaw, and by the Ancients Iſter; which riſes in Suabia in the ſouthweſt of Germany in the vicinity of the Italian Alps, and runs eaſtward near 2000 miles, receiving in its way a vaſt number of rivers, flowing with a ſwift current, diſgorging its waters by many mouths into the Euxine, and navigable by boats thence to within leſs than 100 miles of its foundation, but capable alſo of carrying ſhips in ſome places, particularly between Belgrade and Vienna, where armed fleets have actually fought battles in its broad and deep channel. The Danube derives ſome auxiliar ſtreams from the glaciers of the Alps, particularly the river Inn, which ſome ſuppoſe to be its original ſtream. From theſe vaſt reſervoirs alſo originate the Rhine and Rhone; which being famous rivers, and not confined within the territories of any particular country, are not to be here omitted.

The Rhine commences from two or three ſources in the neighbourhood of Saint Gothard, a mountain in the Griſon country in the principal Alpine chain,

chain; and, running northward, is received into a vaſt baſon, which thus forms the lake of Conſtance, called alſo the Boden See, an admirably fine expanſe of water of a greeniſh hue, above 40 miles long and 16 broad; beſide another baſon a little below it, called the Zeller See, or lower Lake of Conſtance, which divides into two branches, extending in length 16 miles and in breadth about 9. The town of Conſtance is ſituate between the upper lake and the lower. Having filled theſe baſons, the Rhine, iſſuing from the more weſtern branch of the inferior lake, flows weſtward, and pent between hills which are green with vineyards or tufted with groves, falls down a precipice about three miles from Schaff-hauſen, and thus forms the noble cataract of Lauffen, the height of whoſe fall may be about 50 feet, and 250 the breadth of the precipitated ſtream, which is divided into three branches by two rocks tufted at top with trees and riſing in the middle of the fall §. At Baſil the river ſuddenly makes a flexure to the north, and at length flows into the ſea of Britain, having performed a courſe of above 800 miles, navigable by boats to within a ſmall diſtance of its ſource, and by larger veſſels through a great part of its chanel. Before its efflux it divides into three channels, one of which called the Rhine is quite ſtopped by accumulations of ſand, ſo that the waters of this river are diſcharged only by two channels, the Iſſel and

§ See Coxe's Sketches of Switzerland, and Randolph's Letters on Switzerland.

Waal,

Waal, the latter of which forms a junction with the Meuſe. The Rhone, anciently named Rhodanus, derives its main ſource from a vaſt glacier at the Mountain Furca, on the eaſtern point of the territory of Vallais, and on the weſtern ſide of Saint Gothard, not far from the ſources of the Rhine. Flowing towards the weſt, it meets a moſt beautiful baſon, environed with the moſt romantic ſlopes and mountains of awful height. This filled by the waters of the Rhone is the Leman Lake, or Lake of Geneva, in form ſomewhat like a bow, or ſegment of a circle 150 fathoms deep, above 40 miles long and 15 broad, ſomewhat leſs in area than that of Conſtance, but ſurrounded by finer ſcenery.——This famous lake, like that of Conſtance, is, by the melting of the ſnows, more full in ſummer than in winter, which is alſo the caſe with the Rhone itſelf; and is beſides ſubject to a kind of flux and reflux ſuppoſed to be peculiar to it. After having iſſued from the lake, the Rhone, between Geneva and Nantua, diſappears for the ſpace of 100 yards ingulphed in a chaſm of rocks. Turning at Lyons, it runs almoſt directly ſouth to the Mediterranean, into which it pours its waters by three mouths after a courſe of about 500 miles. Its ſtream, which after its riſe from the Furca falls for ſome ſpace in an almoſt continued caſcade, is extremely rapid throughout, but is navigable for boats ſo high as Seyſill, not very far from the Leman lake.

Beſide the lakes already mentioned, together with the great rivers to which they belong, in the northern

northern peninſula of the Old Continent, thoſe of Ladoga and Onega, between Ruſſia and Finland, ſeem to merit notice. The latter, about 100 miles long and 40 broad, is formed by many concentrated ſtreams, and diſcharges its redundant waters into the Ladoga, which, receiving among others a large river from the ſouth, and expanding to about the length of 120, and the breadth of 60 miles, diſburdens itſelf by the river Neva into the Gulph of Finland ||.

Rivers and Lakes of Africa.

Concerning the rivers and lakes of Africa very little can be ſaid. Of all the great rivers which water this vaſt peninſula the ſources are unknown, nor have Europeans received any tolerable information reſpecting their main channels, excepting the Nile. This moſt famous river ſeems to derive its original ſource from the elevated mountainous region of Abyſſinia, and, running northward, is ſaid to form ſix terrible cataracts before its arrival on the Egyptian confines, where it makes a few inconſiderable falls, and thence purſues its courſe ſtill northward with a vaſt navigable ſtream to the Mediterranean, into which it diſembogues by two principal, and about five inferior channels, its number of mouths being commonly reckoned ſeven, performing in all a courſe of probably much more than 2000 miles *. Of the Niger ſcarcely more than the name

|| See hereafter in Ruſſia

* Mr. Bruce who made a perilous journey into Abyſſinia to aſcertain the ſource of the Nile, and who flattered himſelf with having accompliſhed the deſign, has plainly, from his own account,

name is known.—It alſo is ſuppoſed, as well as the Nile, to have its prime fountain in Abyſſinia or the neighbouring parts. It is even ſaid, but with very little probability, to have the ſame common ſource, and the ſame common channel with the Nile for ſome way, until it ſeparates from it, flowing to the weſt †. In its progreſs weſtward it is ſuppoſed by ſome to be abſorbed by the ſands and totally loſt, while others underſtand it to be the ſame with the vaſt river Senegal, which falls into the Atlantic, and is navigable many hundred miles up from its mouth by ſhips of burden. If the Senegal be the ſame with the Niger, it is a prodigious river, its length of courſe with all its windings being perhaps above 4000 miles. To the ſouth of the Senegal is the Gambia, another great river, navigable in like manner far within land, and imagined by ſome to be a branch of the Senegal, whilſt others think with more probability that it is a diſtinct river,

count, left the matter in its former uncertainty. He diſcovered the fountain of one of many ſtreams which fall into a vaſt lake, whence iſſues a main branch of the Nile; but has given us no reaſon to conclude that this is the principal of theſe ſtreams: while, on the other hand he tells us (what others alſo have told us) that the White River, another auxiliar ſtream, the ſources of which are much higher and more remote and without which the channel of the Nile would be without water in the dry ſeaſon, is much greater than what he calls the Nile itſelf. Conſequently the main ſource of the White River, which he made no attempt to trace, is the main ſource of the Nile.

† This is the report of Mr. Savary, from the unanimous teſtimony, as he ſays, of the Abyſſinians, who bring gold duſt to Grand Cairo See Savary's Letters concerning Egypt.

Far

Far to the ſouth, and in a much narrower part of Africa, the Zara and Coanza pour their waters into the Atlantic, with a furious current, which ſeem to mark the vaſt height and ſteep declivity of that part of the continent ‡. The latter ſeems leſs rapid than the former, and is navigable for about 150 miles up from the ocean, into which it diſembogues by two channels, of which the ſouthern is the deeper. Farther ſouth, but in the oppoſite ſide of the continent, runs the river Magnico, or Rio del Eſpiritu Sancto, which mixes its waters with the Indian Ocean; and northward of this is the Cuama, a much greater river, navigable above 400 miles; both imagined to originate from a great lake denominated Goyama.—Farther north is the Quilman or Zelea, and farther ſtill the Magadoxa, all falling into the Indian Ocean. Of the many great lakes, which probably are to be found in the interior parts of this vaſt peninſula, and concerning ſome of which uncertain reports have been received, one ſeems to be of enormous, but as yet unknown, extent, called the Lake of Zambre, or Maravi, in the eaſtern ſide of the continent, northward of Monomotapa.

Rivers and Lakes of America.

In commodiouſneſs of natural inland navigation, and in the magnitude of its rivers, the Old Con-

‡ The ſtream of the Coanza is ſaid to be ſo impetuous that it renders the ocean quite muddy for two or three leagues from its mouth; while that of the Zara is ſo vehement that it remains unmixed with the ocean's waters for 60 miles from the land: An hyperbole, which may tend to ſhew the idea entertained of the violence of its influx.

tinent

tinent is much ſurpaſſed by the New. The immenſe chain of the Andes, which conſtitute the ſpine of South America, lies ſo near the Pacific, that the rivers which fall thence into that ocean have but a ſhort courſe, and by the declivity of the land, are moſtly of the nature of torrents, ſometimes with full and violent ſtreams, at others with channels almoſt dry. On the eaſtern ſide torrents without number collect and compoſe a multitude of large ſtreams, which gliding at the bottoms of thoſe profound trenches which ſeparate the enormous mountains of the Andes, gain the immenſe plains between theſe mountains and the Atlantic, where, flowing with but little depth of water, and on beds not much elevated above the ocean, they form the prodigious rivers of Orinoco and Maragnon, and contribute alſo chiefly to ſwell the La Plata; to which three rivers, at leaſt the two laſt, for breadth of ſtream and body of water, the whole globe can furniſh no rivals. Each of theſe unequalled ſtreams, whoſe magnitude is quite aſtoniſhing, is generally allowed to be 100 miles broad even at the diſtance of 100 miles from the ocean; but their depth is not proportionate to the enormous width of their channels. The La Plata, though it receives a great ſtream from the Andes, to which, conſidered as the original river, the name of La Plata is given, is augmented by the junction of two other great rivers, longer than this, from the Brazilian mountains, the greater and more weſtern of which is named the Paraguay, and the ſmaller the Parana. The La Plata, though navigable throughout by

by ſmall veſſels, admits not ſhips of burden with ſafety much above 200 miles up its ſtream, the whole length of which is more than 2000 miles. The Maragnon, called alſo the river of the Amazons *, the greateſt of all rivers on this globe, ſeems to originate from an immenſe number of ſtreams which pour from the Andes, particularly one from the lake Llauricocha, about 80 miles from Lima, in 11 degrees of ſouth latitude. Receiving in its progreſs a vaſt number of ſubſidiary rivers, ſome of which, particularly the Madera, are of great ſize, it bears to the Atlantic an enormous body of water, in a channel, which at its mouth is above 150 miles broad, and whoſe length, with all its windings, is ſuppoſed to be near 5000 miles, through the greater part of which ſpace it may be navigated even by veſſels of many tuns burthen. The Orinoco, riſing in like manner from the Andes, runs to the Atlantic, into which it diſembogues by many mouths, the number of which is ſaid by ſome to be 50, performing a courſe of about 1500 miles, and navigable almoſt throughout, but not without interruptions from rocks and ſhallows. Such is the magnitude and impetuoſity of the torrent which it pours into the ocean, that it diminiſhes the ſaltneſs of its waters many leagues from land. It has alſo a navigable communication with the Maragnon by the medium of the river Negro, which, running between theſe immenſe rivers, divides into two

* For the fabulous cauſe of this name, ſee hereafter in the account of the particular countries of South America.

arms,

arms, one of which flows into the Maragnon and the other into the Orinoco. South America can alſo boaſt of other ſtreams of great, but far inferior magnitude to the above-mentioned; one of which is the Magdalena, which runs from Quito, northward through Terra Firma to the ocean, a courſe of about 1000 miles; and ſome others are to be found in Brazil.

As the New Continent in general has the advantage of the Old in the magnitude of its rivers, its northern peninſula, in particular, ſurpaſſes every other part of the world in the number and ſize of its freſh-water lakes. This is evident with reſpect to thoſe parts of North America which are known to Europeans, and is in all probability the caſe with the vaſt tracts in the north and weſt, which are totally unknown, and which conſtitute more than half of this immenſe peninſula. In theſe unexplored regions runs a great river, which diſembogues into the Pacific Ocean about the latitude of 59 degrees north, and which has been denominated Cook's River, from the name of its diſcoverer Captain Cook, who ſailed above 200 miles up its ſtream in the year 1778 †. This great river may perhaps hereafter be found to rival the Miſſiſſippi and Saint Lawrence, prodigious ſtreams, which take their riſe in the unknown regions, and whoſe original fountains conſequently remain to be traced, but whoſe channels through an immenſe length of courſe are well known. The Miſſiſſippi,

† See Cook's Laſt Voyage, vol. ii. book 4. chap. 6.

which

which runs ſouthward to the Gulph of Mexico, and diſburdens itſelf by a number of mouths, ſome ſay three principal and ſome ſmaller, is ſuppoſed to run little leſs than 4000 miles, including its meanders. Though it flows with a rapid ſtream, it is navigable by veſſels of conſiderable burden above 900 miles, quite from its mouth to the influx of a great ſubſidiary river called the Ohio, and thence by boats to a cataract called the Falls of Saint Anthony; nor is the navigation finally ſtopped here, but may be purſued much farther, perhaps to its principal ſource. Where this cataract is formed, about 1100 miles in a direct line from the Gulph of Mexico, the ſtream is confined to a breadth of little more than 250 yards, and, being precipitated perpendicularly about 30 feet, falls afterwards with an oblique deſcent, named the Rapids, about 900 more. The noiſe of the fall may be heard diſtinctly at the diſtance of 15 miles, and the cataract is viſible not leſs than four; ſo that, combined with the beauties of a wild, but naturally extremely fine country, it forms a view altogether delightful ‡. The Miſſooree is the chief component ſtream, or rather the original river, navigable more than 1200 miles above its influx.

The Saint Lawrence is remarkable above all known rivers for the immenſe baſons through which its courſe lies, and which thus conſtitute lakes of ſo vaſt extent as almoſt to merit the title of Freſh-water Seas, riſing in huge billows like the

‡ Carver's Travels in North America.

ocean

ocean when agitated by ſtorms, filled with the pureſt limpid water, and containing many iſlands of great extent. The greateſt of the baſons filled by the water of this extraordinary river is Lake Superior, 500 miles long, 300 broad, and of ſuch fine clear water, that thoſe who ſail on it ſeem frequently to themſelves as if ſuſpended in the air, every part of the bottom being as diſtinctly viſible as if no water intervened §. The greateſt of the iſlands contained in this noble expanſe is the Royal Iſle, ſuppoſed to be about 100 miles long and 40 broad. The Saint Lawrence, from its efflux out of this lake to its entrance into that of Huron, through a length of about 40 miles, bears the name of the Strait of Saint Mary, and forms between theſe two lakes a rapid and ſlanting fall, called the Falls of Saint Mary, for near three quarters of a mile, againſt which no veſſels can ſail, but through which they may paſs with the current. The Lake Huron, approaching a triangle in its figure, and above 300 miles long, receives alſo by a ſtream, denominated the Strait of Michillimackinac, the redundant waters of another vaſt baſon called Michigan, which extends in length about 280 miles and in breadth 40. From the Huron the river continues its courſe to the comparatively ſmall lake of Saint Claire, and thence to that of Erie which is near 300 miles long and 40 broad.

The Saint Lawrence in its progreſs from the Erie to Lake Ontario, a length of about 36 miles, Falls of Niagara.

§ See Carver's Travels.

is named the River Niagara, and, in its approach to the latter lake, or a little above the middle of the courſe between the two lakes, forms a cataract, called the Falls of Niagara, which, taking all circumſtances together, is to be accounted the greateſt in the known world. Here the immenſe flood of this vaſtly deep and broad river, pent up between embanking rocks to the comparatively very ſmall breadth of 450 yards, or little more than a quarter of an Engliſh mile, tumbles at once down the face of a huge precipice with a perpendicular fall of 140 feet; and afterwards with a gentle declivity, but ſufficiently great to occaſion a very ſtrong rapid, ruſhes with a furious current for about eight miles. The vaſt maſs of rock, which cauſes this cataract, forms a curve acroſs the river's channel, and a part projects from it below, in ſuch manner as to appear an iſland in the middle of the fall, about 120 yards broad on its lower ſide, which gives ſome variety to this amazing ſcene ‖. Imagination is totally unequal to the conception of this delightfully tremendous object; an immenſe body of water pent up in a narrow channel ſo as to increaſe the violence of its current to an extraordinary degree, precipitated in a foam of a ſnowy whiteneſs from ſo awful an height, and rebounding on high with incomprehenſible fury from the rocks on which it is daſhed below; a thundering ſound, which ſtuns the approaching traveller, and is audible at the

‖ Travels of Peter Williamſon, &c. in North America.

diſtance

diſtance of more than 20 miles*; and an immenſe body of vapours raiſed aloft from the daſhed and broken foam, reſembling a vaſt column of ſmoke, and when irradiated by the beams of the ſun, exhibiting to the delighted eye a glorious rainbow†. The vehemence of the river's current commences at ſo conſiderable a diſtance above the fall, that many unwary animals, which attempt to ſwim acroſs, or otherwiſe happen to enter the ſtream, are hurried with irreſiſtible violence to the cataract, where, precipitated to the rocks at the bottom of the fall, they meet a dreadful but ſudden death. Allured by the lacerated carcaſes of unfortunate animals, beat to pieces on the rocks, and again diſgorged by the flood, great numbers of the eagle tribe, and other carnivorous birds, are ſaid to frequent this awful cataract, and augment the wildneſs of the ſcene.

From the Lake Ontario, which is of an oval form, about 200 miles long and 100 broad, the Saint Lawrence proceeds to the Atlantic, into which it diſembogues, after performing a courſe of probably little leſs in all than 3000 miles, navigable by great veſſels, even ſhips of the line, for about 360 miles, as high as the town of Quebec, and thence by ſmaller veſſels, with ſome little interruptions, quite through the lakes, each of which

* See Carver's Travels. Captain Carver was told that, with favourable circumſtances of wind and weather, it can be heard 15 leagues, or 45 miles.

† Rainbows are the natural concomitants of cataracts, as the laws of optics ſhew, but that of Niagara is particularly ſtriking.

is capable of bearing ſhips of great burden. Some of the navigable ſtreams, which flow into the Saint Lawrence, approach ſo near to others, which fall into the Miſſiſſippi, that, excepting ſmall interruptions, called Portages, or Carrying-places, over which goods are brought by land carriage, merchandize may be tranſported by water through the continent, from the ſea which is called the Gulph of Saint Lawrence, to that which is more properly termed the Gulph of Mexico. Perhaps, if the yet unknown regions of North America were explored, a like inland navigation would be found, quite acroſs this immenſe peninſula, from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean. This navigation is highly promoted by the lakes, of which, beſide thoſe already noticed, ſome of great magnitude have been diſcovered, and many, very probably, ſtill await the inveſtigation of future travellers.——Among thoſe which are known is Lake Winnepeek, ſeemingly in length about 200, and in breadth 100 miles, beſides that it is cloſely connected with another lake ſo as to form, in conjunction with it, an immenſe expanſe of freſh water. Among thoſe which occurred in the journey of Governor Hearn, in the years 1771 and 1772, is the Arathapeſcow Lake, which ſeems to be greater than Lake Superior, and conſequently the greateſt of all ſuch expanſes in the known world ‡.

‡ This is doubtleſs the vaſt lake of which the Indians informed Captain Carver, as lying to the north-weſt of Lake Winnepeek, and which he imagined to be an arm of the ocean forming a communication between Hudſon's Bay and the Pacific. See Carver's Travels, page 110. Dub. Edit.

SECTION

SECTION THE FOURTH.

CLIMATES—VARIATION OF TEMPERATURE IN THE SAME CLIMATE—WINDS—SEA AND LAND BREEZES—TRADE WINDS—CURRENTS—THE SURF—MONSOONS—TEMPERATURE AND SEASONS OF THE TORRID ZONE—HOT WINDS—SEASONS OF THE TEMPERATE AND FRIGID ZONES.

THE mountains, lakes, and rivers, of which the principal, as far as Europeans know, have now been briefly noticed, though they ſerve in the higheſt degree to diverſify the face of nature, not only in the two immenſe continents, but alſo in the numerous iſlands, are not the ſole cauſe of that infinite variety, which the ſurface of our planet diſplays to the view. To this the nature of the ſoil and influence of the ſun contribute in no ſmall proportion. As the viciſſitude of day and night is cauſed by the rotation of the earth round its axis, ſo the inequality of the days, and the change of ſeaſons, is occaſioned by ſuch an oblique poſition of the earth's axis in the annual revolution of this planet round the ſun, that the planes of all the circles parallel to the equator, which lie between the tropics, paſs twice in the year through that immenſe luminary, ſo that the ſun becomes vertical Climates.

vertical to, or appears in the zenith of, every place between the tropics twice in the year. The nearer the ſun is to the zenith of any place on the earth's ſurface, the more forcible is the action of his beams on that part; as not only the rays are more denſe, or fall in greater numbers on any given ſpace, but alſo ſtrike with greater force, as falling more directly, and, as paſſing through a ſmaller portion of the atmoſphere, they are leſs refracted, and conſequently leſs weakened, in their courſe. But the heat, ſuſtained by any part of the globe's ſurface, is augmented not only in proportion to the greater directneſs of the rays which fall on it, but alſo to the length of the time during which it is expoſed to the action of them. Thus, when no cauſes occur to interrupt the ordinary courſe, the heat is greater at two o'clock in the afternoon than at twelve, becauſe, though the rays act more directly, and conſequently with greater force at twelve than in any other part of the day, yet, from that hour until two, the heat, as it were, accumulates by gradual acceſſions. Hence it may be eaſily conceived that while the days continue in any place much longer than the nights, the heat encreaſes, as the earth in that part receives more particles of heat in the day, than it loſes in the night. Thus, in our northern hemiſphere, though the ſun ſheds his moſt powerful rays in the time about the ſummer ſolſtice, or the 20th of June; yet, from the length of the days in that part of the year, the heat gradually augments, in ſuch manner that the hot-

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teſt ſeaſon is about the end of July, when the rays act with leſs force.

In the central parts of the torrid zone, or thoſe which lie very near the equator, where the ſun, beſide being annually twice vertical, darts during the reſt of the year an almoſt perpendicular beam, and where the days are always equal to the nights, the heat is uniformly intenſe throughout the whole year, and a fervid ſummer perpetually reigns. Some difference in the degrees of heat in oppoſite parts of the year may be perceived at the tropics, as in each alternately the ſun is vertical, and in the oppoſite ſeaſon almoſt 47 degrees diſtant from it. When in either tropic the ſun ſheds a perpendicular beam, the days being at the ſame time longer than the nights, the heat encreaſes, and becomes perhaps greater than at the equator itſelf; but in the oppoſite ſeaſon, when this vaſt luminary, having receded to the oppoſite tropic, almoſt 47 degrees diſtant from the former, darts his rays ſomewhat obliquely, the days are ſhorter than the nights, and the fervours muſt neceſſarily become ſomewhat leſs vehement. In proportion as the latitude encreaſes from the torrid zone to either pole, the days and nights become more unequal, the rays more oblique, and the cold of that ſeaſon when the ſun is fartheſt from the zenith in general greater: but the heat of the oppoſite part of the year decreaſes not in the ſame proportion, the length of the days compenſating in ſome degree for the want of that force in the ſolar beams which is experienced in the torrid climes; yet, in approaching the poles, the influence

influence of these beams becomes so feeble, by reason of their obliquity, that they seem to make hardly any impression on the ice which perpetually occupies the polar tracts, rising to a great height, and stretching from each pole to the distance of many degrees all around §.

When, at the time of our summer solstice, toward the end of June, the sun appears in the northern tropic, so as to be nearest the zenith of every place in the northern temperate and arctic zones, then throughout these two zones the days have attained their greatest length, the summer prevails, and the heat encreases; while, at the same time, in the southern temperate, and southern frigid zones, phenomena exactly contrary take place, the days being there contracted to their smallest measure, the winter prevalent, and the cold augmenting: But when, in the opposite season of the year, our brumal solstice, toward the end of December, the sun shines on the southern tropic of the earth with perpendicular light, and is consequently nearer to the zenith of all places in the southern temperate zone and the antarctic, then these two zones enjoy the summer, the longest days and encreasing heat; while in the arctic and northern temperate zones,

§ This is contrary to the idea of the Comte de Buffon and others, who suppose that by the perpetual day of six months duration which prevails at the poles, the ice is dissolved, and the seas navigable: But whoever attentively reads the second and third Voyages of Cook, with the Observations of Doctor Forster, must be convinced of the contrary.

the

the oppoſite effects are felt, winter, the longeſt nights, and progreſſive cold ‖.

If the ſurface of our globe were ſo far ſmooth as to be deſtitute of mountains or hills of any conſiderable heights, homogeneous in its ſoil, and of an uniform face, ſo as not to have a greater proportion of water with reſpect to the land in one part than in another, we might ſuppoſe that all countries lying in the ſame climate would have the ſame temperature *, or, that the winter's cold would be found regularly greater, and the ſummer's heat leſs, in proportion as the latitude encreaſes from the tropics to the poles. We might in this caſe imagine that the regions of perpetual ice, in which the poles of the earth are ſituate, would extend to equal diſtances on all ſides, each from its reſpective pole, ſo as to be bounded, next to the torrid zone, by quite regular lines, or circles of latitude parallel to the equator. But the influence of the ſolar beams is ſo variouſly modified by the various elevations of the lands, their aſpects, their relative extent with reſpect to the water, the nature of their ſoil, the winds, and other accidents, that the temperature of countries can by no means be known by their climates; many, which lie between the ſame parallels of latitude, being totally different in this

Variation of temperature in the ſame climate.

‖ To thoſe who underſtand not aſtronomy theſe phenomena may be explained, as is directed in a note in the definitions, p. 25.

* By the word Temperature is in this work meant the conſtitution of the air with reſpect either to cold or heat indifferently.

reſpect, and others, which lie in very different latitudes, perhaps the one 12 or even 20 degrees nearer to the pole than the other, having the ſame degree of heat in ſummer, or of cold in winter.

Our globe thus circumſtanced exhibits a moſt irregularly varied face. The extenſive tracts of permanent ice, or immenſe glaciers of the earth, which occupy the regions about the poles, are bounded toward the equator, each by a line the moſt uneven that imagination can conceive. The immenſe arctic glacier, or that which lies about the arctic pole, ſeems to extend on the ſide of the Pacific Ocean to the diſtance of near 19 degrees from the polar point, while in ſome places on the ſide of the Atlantic it reaches not ſo far as the extent of eight: But the oppoſite or antarctic glacier ſeems to advance little leſs than 19 degrees from the pole in any part. Next to theſe torpid realms of piercing cold and inceſſant winter lie two far more extenſive regions or girdles of the earth, which at one time of the year are covered with ſnow, and at another lie open to the genial rays of the ſun. Theſe regions in which winter and ſummer, cold and heat, exert alternate empire, occupy the greater part of the two temperate, with ſome portion of the frigid zones, and are, like the tracts of perpetual ice, bounded next the equator by the moſt ſinuous and irregular lines imaginable. Between theſe is placed the realm of perpetual ſummer, an immenſe region, or uneven belt, comprehending the torrid zone, with a conſiderable part of the two temperate, particularly the northern.

So

So vaſtly is the temperature affected by the elevation of the land, that, even in the middle of the torrid zone, ſuch parts of mountains as reach above a certain height, are clothed with glaciers and perennial ſnow. The height of that region of our atmoſphere, in which perpetual congelation prevails, varies with the climate, but between the tropics, where it is greateſt, it has been computed at ſomewhat above 16000 feet from the level of the ocean. Some influence is alſo to be aſcribed to the aſpects of lands, as thoſe which verge towards the equator in ſuch manner as to receive more directly the meridian rays, and are ſheltered from refrigerating gales, muſt ſuſtain a much greater degree of warmth than others in the ſame climate which have a contrary poſition, expoſed to chilling winds which blow from cold regions, and ſloping from the meridian ſun ſo as to receive his beams obliquely. Nor is the ſoil itſelf without its effect, in varying the temperature of countries which lie in the ſame climate. Surfaces, which preſent little to the action of the ſun beſides rocks and ſand, reflect the rays with ſuperior force, and render the incumbent air much hotter than that which impends over tracts of a different kind, tracts which are covered with woods or herbage, or are of a moiſt or ſoft nature, and, by abſorbing the ſolar beams, prevent the effects of their reflection and refraction.

To the variations above ſtated are to be added thoſe which depend on the extent of the land, the ſituation of countries with reſpect to the water, and the

the direction of the prevailing wind to which they are expoſed. Excepting near the poles, where the rigours of intolerable cold convert the ſurface of the ocean into ice, in which caſe the water differs not from frozen tracts of continent in its influence on the air, the ſeas, by their tranſparency, fluidity, and continual agitation, have always a much milder temperature than the land, or are in a ſtate, in this reſpect, much nearer a medium between the extremes of heat and cold. The winds, which blow over thoſe tracts of water, acquire their temperature in ſome degree, and render the maritime countries which they ventilate, and iſlands, particularly ſuch of the latter as are of ſmall extent, leſs cold in winter, and leſs hot in ſummer, than tracts, which, lying within either continent, receive, at one time, winds fraught with cold from frozen parts of the globe, and, at another, ſuch as blow hot from ſultry regions †.

Winds. The winds, whoſe potent agency influences the temperature of countries in ſo high a degree, originate, however modified by other circumſtances and accidents, from the partial rarefactions and condenſations of the atmoſphere; that immenſe body of air, which is circumfuſed around our planet, by its endeavours, by reaſon of its fluidity, to reſtore the equilibrium, conſtantly ſending a current into a rarified from a denſer part. The

† As it ſeems not to be the buſineſs of a geographer, at leaſt of an epitomizer of geography, to enter minutely into ſubjects which belong to natural philoſophy, I ſhall here refer the reader to Robertſon's Hiſtory of America, vol. i. note 30.

winds

winds of the torrid zone, from the ſuperior force of the ſun's beams in that region, have a regularity elſewhere unknown. Here the regular ſea and land-breezes prevail, and the general trade winds, which are ſo advantageous to navigation and commerce.

Sea and land-breezes.

The regular land and ſea-breezes are experienced in maritime countries, particularly in iſlands of conſiderable extent. The land in the day, heated by the violent action of the ſun, acts with reflected heat on the incumbent air, which, thus rarefied and rendered light, mounts aloft; while that which is more denſe and heavy, as lying on the cooler ſurface of the deep, ruſhes in to ſupply its place, and thus cauſes a ſea-wind, or current of air from the ſea to the land. But, in the night, the land, no longer warmed by the rays of the ſun, ſoon cools, and ſuffers the air over it to recover its denſity; while the ſea, having been during the day more ſlowly but more deeply warmed, retains the warmth longer, and renders the air which lies upon it more rarefied than that which the land ſuſtains; conſequently the latter, by its ſuperior denſity and weight, preſſes into the place of the former, and conſtitutes a wind blowing from the land to the ſea. The force, extent, and duration of theſe local winds, which are ſeldom perceived many leagues from ſhore, are varied by circumſtances, one of which is the nature of the ſoil; for that which is ſandy imbibes the heat more deeply, and cauſes a longer continuation of the ſea-breeze; thus, this breeze is felt on the coaſt of Coromandel

del till ten o'clock at night, whereas in iſlands covered with verdure it commonly ceaſes before ſix in the evening, and, after about an hour of calm, is ſucceeded by the land-breeze, which gradually declines towards eight in the morning, and is followed by a calm interval of an hour or two before the recommencement of the ſea wind ‡.

Trade winds.

As the ſun is vertical ſucceſſively to all parts of the torrid zone once in ſix months, it may eaſily be conceived that the part which at any one time is directly under this immenſe luminary, being moſt heated by his beams, rarefies moſt, by communicated heat, the air immediately over it; and that conſequently if the earth ſhould remain motionleſs, in ſuch manner that the ſame portion of its ſurface ſhould continue expoſed to the ſame direct rays, the denſer circumjacent air muſt ruſh from all quarters into the rarefied ſpace, and form, like the ſea-breeze of an iſland, a wind blowing from all points of the compaſs at once upon the ſame tract within. But as the earth whirls round its axis in 24 hours with prodigious velocity from weſt to eaſt, and thereby cauſes the fixed body of the ſun to appear to move the contrary way, the rarefaction is inceſſantly carried forward with the apparent courſe of the ſun, from eaſt to weſt, contrary to the rotation of the earth's ſurface, and is conſtantly followed by the denſer air from behind, which would thus produce, if the ſun appeared always in the plane of

‡ For a more particular account of theſe winds, ſee Marſden's Hiſtory of Sumatra, p. 15.

the

the equator, an uninterrupted eaſterly wind. But, ſince by the obliquity of the earth's axis, and its annual revolution, the ſun is made virtually to decline from the equator to each tropic alternately, ſo as to be ſix months vertical to the ſouthern half of the torrid zone, and ſix months to the northern, the courſe of the wind is neceſſarily changed with that of the rarefaction, its direction being from about the north-eaſt when the ſun appears receding toward the ſouthern tropic, and from about the ſouth-eaſt when his declination is towards the northern. Theſe regular currents of air, called the Trade or Perpetual Winds, blow with the leaſt variation in the Main Ocean, far from land, between the parallels of 10 and 30 degrees north and ſouth, and from the month of May to October in the one half year, and from November to April in the other; for their direction is not fixed in the equinoctial months, when the ſun paſſes the equator, nor until after he has declined ſeveral degrees toward the one or the other tropic.

Currents.

Theſe regular currents of air called the Trade Winds occaſion alſo regular Currents in the ocean. The waters of the Pacific inceſſantly propelled toward the coaſts of China, New Holland, and the innumerable iſlands between them, and thoſe of the Atlantic to the eaſtern coaſt of America, give riſe to a vaſt variety of Currents. The waters thus propelled to the coaſt of America, flow northward and ſouthward along that coaſt beyond the regions of the trade winds, and return toward the weſtern coaſts of the Old Continent by two general Currents;

rents; one in the northern temperate zone flowing from ſouth-weſt to north-eaſt, and one in the ſouthern temperate zone directing its courſe from north-weſt to ſouth-eaſt ‡.——Theſe general Currents are modified by various poſitions of the land. For inſtance, the water which is driven by the Trade winds to the bottom of the Gulph of Mexico, and thence repelled by the reaction of the land, runs back through the old Bahama channel, where it meets another Current and forms with it a joint ſtream, which, under the appellation of the Gulph-ſtream, runs, after various flexures, between the Canaries and the iſlands of Cape Verde, to the coaſt of Africa, where it ſpreads to the breadth of above 400 miles, though at its exit from the Bahama channel it is not above 24 miles broad §. Thus alſo ſeem to be occaſioned ſimilar Currents in the air, it being obſerved that, as eaſterly winds blow regularly in the torrid zone and its vicinity, ſo weſterly predominate, but without regularity, in the temperate zones; for the atmoſphere is agitated by a great variety of contrary currents at different heights, and the air, which riſes aloft in the intra-tropical tracts to give room to the courſe of the Trade winds, may at leaſt contribute to cauſe a reflux in the loweſt regions of the atmoſphere beyond the limits of the eaſterly gales. It is alſo obſerved that eaſterly winds are moſt frequent in the frigid zones ‖, occaſioned probably by the weſterly

‡ Forſter's Collection of Diſcoveries to the North.
§ Pownal's Obſervations on the Currents of the Atlantic.
‖ Forſter's Collection of Diſcoveries to the North.

of

of the temperate, in ſome ſuch manner as theſe are cauſed by the eaſterly of the torrid.

A phenomenon peculiar to the torrid climes, of whoſe origin and variations no accurate account has as yet been given, but which is moſt probably cauſed by the trade winds, is the Surf, by which is underſtood a particular ſwell and breaking of the ſea upon the ſhore, ſo violent as to render the landing extremely difficult, and on ſome coaſts, excepting to boats of a peculiar conſtruction, abſolutely impoſſible. "Sometimes the Surf forms but a ſingle range along the ſhore; at others a ſucceſſion of two, three, four, or more, behind each other, extending perhaps half a mile out to ſea. The number of ranges is generally in proportion to the height and violence. It begins to aſſume its form at ſome diſtance from the place where it breaks, gradually accumulating as it moves forward, till it gains a height, in common of 15 or 20 feet, when it overhangs at top, and falls like a caſcade, nearly perpendicular, involving itſelf as it deſcends. The noiſe made by the fall is prodigious, and during the ſtillneſs of the night, may be heard many miles up the country *." The Surf.

The winds of the torrid zone, however regular in the main ocean, with reſpect to their direction toward the weſt, undergo various modifications in approaching the vaſt continents and long chains of iſlands, being turned from their courſe by the nature of the ſoil, or deflected by the ſhores and moun-

* See Marſden's Sumatra, page 28, &c.

tains, in ſuch manner as to incline to a paralleliſm with the coaſts. So great is the influence of the ſoil in this caſe, that, in a part of the Atlantic, near the coaſt of Africa, within the torrid zone, the current of the air, inſtead of purſuing its regular courſe toward the weſt, is directed the quite contrary way, and flows to the eaſt; the burning ſands of the African deſerts rarefying to ſuch a degree the incumbent air, as to leave ſpace for that which is over the ocean to flow back, even in direct oppoſition to the trade wind. The tract of ocean ſituate between this region of weſterly winds, and that wherein the eaſterly gales reſume their direction, is condemned to almoſt perpetual calms and whirlwinds, and ſubject to ſuch frequent ſhowers as to have been denominated the Rains by mariners.

Monſoons. In the northern part of the Indian Ocean, near the coaſts, and even ſo far as the diſtance of 600 miles from the main continent, the trade winds are changed into what are called the Monſoons, or Periodical Winds, which blow near ſix months from one point, and as long from the directly oppoſite quarter. "Theſe monſoons are governed by various particular laws, in regard to the time of their commencement, period of duration, circumſtances attending their change, and direction of the prevailing wind, according to the nature and ſituation of the lands and coaſts where their influence is felt †." In general, it may be ſaid, that the

† Marſden's Sumatra, p. 13.

times

times of their change are nearly the ſame with thoſe of the trade winds, and that their general direction is from about the north-eaſt and ſouth-weſt; the ſouth-eaſtern trade wind being converted into the ſouth-weſt monſoon: But, in ſome tracts of this ocean a deflection entirely different is obſerved, as on the coaſt of Sumatra the monſoons blow from the north-weſt and ſouth-eaſt; the north-eaſtern trade being there changed into the north-weſtern monſoon, while the ſouth-eaſtern trade retains its direction ‡.

Temperature and Seaſons.

The periodical winds and ſeaſons of the torrid zone are ſo nearly allied, as to be ſynonymous in the iſlands and continental coaſts of Aſia; which are waſhed by the Indian ocean; the two ſeaſons into which the year is divided, being there termed the Wet and Dry Monſoons.

Of the Torrid Zone.

In ſome circumſtances the torrid zone differs widely from other parts of the earth. Here, as the ſun appears to move in circles, perpendicular, or nearly perpendicular to the horizon, the twilights are very ſhort, ſo that darkneſs ſeems almoſt inſtantaneouſly to ſucceed the light at ſunſet, and light the darkneſs at ſunriſe: the days are hardly at any time ſenſibly different in length from the nights; and the ſun, darting a fervid ray in every month, gives perpetual ſummer; ſo that, where the inhabitants can command an afflux and reflux of water, they can, as it were, command the ſea-

‡ Marſden's Sumatra, p. 14, 15. Alſo Forreſt's Voyage to New Guinea, book i. chap. 12.

ſons; as they may ſow at any time ſo as to have the ſame kind of grain in all ſtages of growth at once, from its firſt appearance above ground to complete ripeneſs; and may raiſe from the ſame field three ſucceſſive crops of different kinds within the year. In general, however, two crops in the year is the more common produce of the tropical climates; but, with reſpect to trees and their fruit, ſpring, ſummer, and autumn may be ſaid to hold conjointly a perpetual reign; the ſame tree bearing at once buds, leaves, bloſſoms, and fruit; of the laſt of which ſome are green, ſome ripe, and ſome rotten.

However nearly equable the ardours of the torrid zone may be in the different ſeaſons, they are by no means the ſame in different countries. In verdant iſlands, fanned by breezes from the deep, Farenheit's thermometer ſeldoms riſes in the ſhade above 86 degrees, while in the continent it is often found, in the ſame circumſtance, at the height of more than 100. This is its riſe in the populous and well cultivated country of Bengal, and it muſt doubtleſs mount to a much greater height in the glowing deſerts of Africa, where the heat, vehemently reflected by immenſe plains of ſcorching ſand, inflames the air in a terrible manner; inſomuch that the winds, which blow from thoſe aduſt regions, are, to the ſenſe, like the air which iſſues from the mouth of a large heated oven, or that which ſcorches the face of a man who approaches a houſe in flames; and, when raiſed to the greateſt degree of their virulence, brings inſtant death to the

Hot Winds

the unhappy traveller, who finds not a cave or ſome other ſuch place of retreat to ſcreen him from their burning blaſts. It has been mercifully ordered by the Author of Nature, that theſe poiſonous winds, as they are ſometimes called, which might ſerve as a dreadful inſtrument of vengeance, are infrequent and of ſhort continuance; they being ſeldom found to prevail above three or four days at one time. They ſeem to be moſt of all intolerable in Africa and Arabia, but are experienced in many other parts of that region of the globe which lies between the tropics, and even blow ſo far into the temperate zones, as to be known, under the names of Solano and Scirocco, in Spain and Italy; where, though by croſſing the Mediterranean they come diveſted of by far the greater part of their malignity, they are yet very formidable to the inhabitants, cauſing exceſſive languor and even ſickneſs.

Nor are we to ſuppoſe the inhabitants of theſe fervid regions, where winter is unknown, exempt from the ſenſation of cold. In the night, when the earth no longer reflects the heat, the cool air from above deſcends to the ground with a chilling damp; and ſometimes piercing winds from frozen regions penetrate into the intratropical tracts, where the relaxation cauſed by exceſſive heat, and the openneſs of the pores, render the human body ſo extremely ſenſible to every diminution of warmth, that what would in Britain be accounted a very conſiderable degree of it, that is, when the thermometer riſes to 70 degrees, brings in the torrid zone, even in its leſs fervid iſlands, ſuch a ſenſation of cold,

cold, as to cauſe a ſhuddering of the limbs, and a chattering of the teeth *.

Though, with reſpect to heat, the tropical regions have perpetual ſummer, yet their year is divided into two ſeaſons, the wet and the dry. In the former the rain falls in ſuch quantities, that the rivers are ſwollen, as it were, into ſeas, and the lower parts of the land covered with water to the depth of many feet. The manner in which the rains deſcend is different in the different countries. In general the ſhowers are not of long duration, but frequent and prodigious, accompanied with tremendous thunder, lightning, and ſqualls of wind; all which are ſucceeded by a bright ſun and ſerene ſky. In the dry ſeaſon the earth, no longer moiſtened by rain, and vehemently heated by the ſun's rays, is in many parts, particularly continental tracts of a ſandy nature, rendered quite arid, and of a barren aſpect, preſenting nothing green to the eye but the foliage of the trees.

The wet ſeaſon in general prevails when the ſun is vertical, and conſequently the heat greateſt; ſo that it commences on the northern ſide of the equator in April, May, or June; and on the ſouthern in October, November, or December. In general alſo two unequal rainy ſeaſons are experienced; a greater when the ſun is vertical, and a much leſs, in the oppoſite part of the year, when that luminary is fartheſt from the zenith. But ſo great is the

* See Marſden's Sumatra, page 11.

influence

influence of the mountains, the form, and poſition of lands, that theſe general rules are far from being applicable to all particular caſes. Countries between the very ſame parallels of latitude, and even different parts of the ſame tract of country, have oppoſite ſeaſons, the one being deluged with rain while the other is dry. This is the caſe in the iſlands, and other maritime countries of Aſia, which are waſhed by the Indian ocean; ſome having their wet ſeaſon in the time of the weſtern monſoon, and others in that of the eaſtern. Thus in each of the two great Indian peninſulas, when the rainy ſeaſon prevails on the eaſtern coaſt, the weſtern has the dry or fair ſeaſon; and when, in its turn, the weſtern feels the fury of rain and tempeſts, the eaſtern enjoys a clear and ſerene ſky; the great chains of mountains, which run through theſe peninſulas from north to ſouth, ſheltering the coaſts alternately from the influence of the reigning monſoon. Some territories, ſcreened on both ſides by mountains, have no rainy ſeaſon at all. Thus the eaſtern part of the kingdom of Siam, though it enjoys the benefit of the rains by the inundation of its rivers, which flow from other parts, has yet throughout the year a ſerene heaven without ſhowers or ſtorms †. Countries differ as much with reſpect to the duration, as the time of commencement, of the wet ſeaſon. In general it continues about four months; but in ſome places its reign is ſhorter, and in others it fills eight or nine months in the

† Travels of a Philoſopher by Le Poivre.

year;

year; as for inſtance, in the iſthmus of Darien, which, with high mountains, and a ſmall breadth of ſurface, ſerves as a bulwark of ſeparation between two immenſe oceans.

Seaſons of the temperate and frigid zones.

In the temperate and frigid zones a totally different order of ſeaſons takes place, an order not depending on dryneſs and moiſture, but on heat and cold. If from the northern tropic we proceed toward the Arctic pole, along the weſtern ſide of the Old Continent, and conſider the temperature of ſuch tracts only as are but little elevated above the ſurface of the ocean, we ſhall find that, from the tropic to about the 35th degree of northern latitude, the year can be properly divided only into two ſeaſons, the ſpring and ſummer, or the cool and hot. The former, which laſts from about September or October to April or May, is diſtinguiſhed by a milder temperature, and alſo moſtly by verdure, and by rains, which, in general, fall irregularly, with ſtorms and loud thunder, in very heavy ſhowers followed by clear ſunſhine and tranquil weather. In the latter either very little, or no rain falls; the heats are little inferior to the ſolſtitial ardours of the torrid zone, and the ſcorched earth appears of an aduſt and ruſſet hue, its herbage being withered, inſomuch that in many places it is expedient to provide a ſtore of hay in ſpring for the preſervation of the cattle in the heats of ſummer. The ſeed time in theſe climates is commonly in October and November, and the corn-harveſt from February to June; but where water can be brought at pleaſure to moiſten the fields, a perpetual ſucceſſion of crops may

may be maintained as in the torrid zone, ſo as to have ſeed time and harveſt in almoſt every month of the year ‡.

About the 40th degree of latitude four ſeaſons are more diſtinguiſhable; a winter with very little froſt or ſnow, but large quantities of rain; a ſpring rainy in its commencement, but afterwards hot and dry; an ardent ſummer for at leaſt the three months of June, July and Auguſt; and an autumn moſtly hot and dry, but often in its concluſion ſubject to ſhowers. Here the corn-harveſt is in May or June, and the ſurface of the ground ſo burned in ſummer as to appear of a barren or duſty aſpect. About the 45th degree the winter is commonly ſharp from November to March, during at leaſt one month of which time the ground is covered with froſt or ſnow; the harveſt is in June or July, and the ſummer ſo hot as to give the land a withered or brown colour. About the 50th degree ſnows or keen froſts continue three or four months, the earth loſes not entirely its verdure in ſummer, and the harveſt is commonly over early in Auguſt.

After the 55th degree the winter occupies ſo large a portion of the year, that but a ſhort ſpace is left for autumn, and a ſtill ſhorter for ſpring. At the 60th ſcarcely either ſpring or autumn is any longer to be found. The deeply accumulated froſts of a long and piercing winter, yield not to the ſun's

‡ For the temperature of ſuch climates, ſee Shaw's Travels, Pocock's, Volney's, Savary's, Chandler's, Ruſſel's Account of the Weather at Aleppo, Bruce's Memoirs, &c. &c.

beams

beams until the heat acquires a great degree of force; when a gradual thaw takes place, and the herbage ſeems to force its way through the thin remaining coat of ice, which at length, ſhivered by the wind, or diſſolved by hot ſunſhine, ſuddenly vaniſhes, and diſcloſes the face of the earth arrayed in verdure. Thus the winter is quickly ſucceeded by ſummer, which, in this latitude, with ſhort nights, and long twilights, is almoſt continually luminous through its greater part; the twilights being ſo ſtrong for near three months about the ſolſtice, that by their aid alone a man may ſee well enough to read ſmall print even at midnight. The winter again comes, without leaving any interval which can properly be denominated Autumn. After alternate ſnows and thaws, an eſtabliſhed froſt poſſeſſes the land and freſh waters, from about October or mid November to April or May; the ice and frozen ſnow of a vaſt depth, and the cold ſo intenſe, that great care is requiſite in the inhabitants to preſerve their fingers, toes, ears, and tips of their noſes, which are apt to be froſt-bitten and drop off mortified; the breath freezes as ſoon as it leaves the mouth; and often boiling water, thrown up into the air, congeals at once, and falls quite dry to the ground in ſmall pieces of ice. Yet with the many diſadvantages of ſo inclement a ſeaſon, ſome conveniencies ariſe; for inſtance, as the intenſe froſt preſerves all animal bodies from putreſcence, the inhabitants, by killing their cattle at its commencement, can, without farther expence, have a continual ſupply of freſh proviſion during its conti-

continuance; and, as all is covered with one continued ſheet of ice or frozen ſnow, goods can be tranſported on ſliding-carriages with wonderful eaſe and expedition, to any diſtance, or in any direction, over hills, bogs, lakes, and rivers, without interruption.

At the 65th degree the ſnows cover the ground about eight months, the ſummer is luminous throughout, either by the actual preſence of the ſun, or by the twilights; and the vegetation, by reaſon of the almoſt continual day, is ſo rapid, that the barley is ripe in about two months after it is ſown. At the 70th degree hardly more than three months can be aſſigned to the ſummer, which is here one continual day, the ſun being conſtantly above the horizon, and appearing to circulate round the heavens in the ſpace of twenty-four hours. Even in this ſeaſon the air is often raw and ſharp, particularly when the ſun is low; but, in calm weather, and favourable poſitions of the land, the noontide heats are frequently oppreſſive. The cold of winter, eſpecially from December to April, is terrible beyond deſcription; but its extreme rigour ſeldom laſts above four or five days at a time without interruption; a thaw, accompanied with a ſoutherly wind, frequently intervening; at which time the filtrated ſnow-water is collected in pools under the ice, a providential ſupply of drink to animals.

In theſe climes perpetual night inveſts the ſkies for ſeveral months, but the nights are almoſt conſtantly

ſtantly lucid by the extremely long twilights ‡, the whiteneſs of the ſnow, the briſk repercuſſion of the rays of the moon and ſtars in the clear cold air; and, above all, by the northern ſtreamers, called the Aurora Borealis; ſportive meteors, which, moſt commonly waving to and fro like military flags, but in very variegated colours, and an infinite variety of fantaſtic forms, paint the ſkies with inconceivable beanty, and blaze with ſuch a ſplendour as ſeems often almoſt to efface the brightneſs of the full moon §.

The Old Continent extends little farther to the north on the weſtern ſide than the 70th degree, but the ocean and iſlands hence toward the arctic pole have a very ſhort and uncomfortable ſummer, with cold, frequent fogs, and an almoſt continual haze in the ſky, ſo that the ſun and horizon are hardly ever clear. Thunder and lightning are in theſe latitudes very rare. The vapours which float in the atmoſphere ſo powerfully refract the rays of light, that the ſun appears almoſt a fortnight ſooner above the horizon than he otherwiſe would ‖, and ſets in like manner later: by which means the winter's day of many months is conſiderably abridged. Theſe vapours alſo cauſe the parhelion or mock-ſun, it often happening that two or three, or even ſix ſuns appear to the eye to ſhine at once. The mock-

‡ For the ſhortneſs of the twilights in the equatorial regions, and their length in the polar, ſee Keill's Aſtronomy, lecture 20.

§ See the Voyage of Maupertuis to Lapland.

‖ Forſter's Collection of Diſcoveries to the North.

moon,

moon, and a luminous circle around the moon, called Halo, are occaſioned by the ſame, together with many other deceptions of the ſight; objects viewed through them often appearing to change in an endleſs variety of whimſical ſhapes, equally ſtrange and pleaſing to the fancy *.

A little beyond the 82d degree the ice ſeems to form a firm permanent maſs, where winter may be ſaid to hold perpetual dominion. Even much farther to the ſouth, navigation is much impeded by the floating and driving ice. The former conſiſts of what are called ice-mountains. Theſe are ſolid lumps, which often riſe 200 feet, or even ſometimes 600, above water, (while their depth below the ſurface of the ocean is ſix times as great), and exhibit an amazing variety of capricious forms; ſome reſembling iſlands, others repreſenting caſtles, towers, or churches, and ſome bearing ſo ſtriking a likeneſs to veſſels under full ſail, that "people have often given themſelves fruitleſs toil, to go on board and pilot the imaginary ſhip into harbour †." The flat driving ice, which is more terrible to mariners than the floating, conſiſts of what are termed ice-fields, which, with a thickneſs of from about eight or nine to 60 feet, ſpread to a vaſt extent, and often, when intermixed with ice mountains, preſent to the eye the appearance of land, with hills, vallies, woods, and cities.

* For an inſtance of this, ſee Crantz's Hiſtory of Greenland, book i. chap. 3. ſect. 22.

† Crantz, book i. chap. 2. ſect. 11.

The

The ſame gradation of temperature and ſeaſons, according to the latitudes, which has here been briefly ſtated, as prevailing from the Tropic of Cancer northward in the weſtern ſide of the Old Continent, and in the Arctic ſea beyond in the ſame meridian tract, can ſcarcely be found elſewhere. The iſlands of the Atlantic, which lie nearer to the European and African, than to the American ſhores, have a milder temperature than any continental tracts in the ſame climates; while, on the other hand, the interior, and ſtill more the eaſtern parts of the Old Continent, have a vaſtly ſeverer winter than the weſtern between the ſame parallels. The difference between the eaſtern and weſtern in this reſpect may be eſtimated at eight degrees of latitude at leaſt; that is, a tract on the eaſtern ſide will be found to have as cold a winter as one on the weſtern ſituate eight degrees farther towards the north. Thus as great a winter is felt in the north of China in the latitude of 42, as in the weſt of Europe in that of 50. But, to the north of Corea and the Tibetan Alps, the difference ſeems to be 10 or 12 degrees at leaſt; for in Kamtſchatka, in the latitude of 53, the winter ſeems to be full as rigorous, if not more ſo, as in the countries about the Baltic in the 65th, or even the 66th degree ‡. In the interior parts of Siberia the cold is ſo intenſe, at the latitude of 56, as to freeze the fluid mercury into a ſolid and malleable ſubſtance §. The ſeve-

‡ See the Account of Kamtſchatka in Cook's Laſt Voyage.

§ See the Account of Pallas's Obſervations in Coxe's Travels in Ruſſia.

rity

rity of winter, which is particularly great on the eaſtern ſide, is doubtleſs much augmented in all that part of the continent which lies northward of the Tibetan Alps, and eaſtward of the Uralian chain, by the height of the land, its expoſure to the north, the uncultivated ſtate of its ſoil, and perhaps other cauſes. In thoſe tracts of the Arctic ſea, which lie in the ſame meridian lines with the eaſtern and weſtern parts of this continent, the ſame difference of temperature cannot be expected; and yet navigation is as much obſtructed by the ice on the former ſide in the latitude of 71, as on the latter in that of 82.

If we compare the region of Tibet with the iſles of Madeira, we ſhall ſee how vaſtly two inhabited countries may differ in temperature, though placed in the ſame climate. The latter enjoys perpetual ſpring, nor ever feels a colder ſeaſon than is experienced in the ſouth of Britain about the middle of May. In the former, by reaſon of its vaſt elevation and polar aſpect, a rigorous winter occupies the greater part of the year; Farenheit's thermometer often ſinks 29 degrees below the freezing point, and even in the midſt of April all the ſtanding waters continue frozen, and at the ſame time heavy ſhowers of ſnow almoſt inceſſantly fall ‖.

The eaſtern ſide of the New Continent, in the northern hemiſphere, ſeems not to differ much in temperature from the correſponding part of the Old. In all theſe regions the air is ſubject to the

‖ Bogle's Journey to Tibet in the Annual Regiſter for 1778.

moſt

moſt formidable tranſitions, ſudden and violent, from heat to cold. Even in the hotteſt weather of July and Auguſt, and in very ſouthern climates, the wind ſometimes ſhifting to the north-weſt, blows ſo cold and humid, after ſweeping over an immenſe tract of lakes, woods, and uncultivated waſtes, as to oblige the inhabitants to ſhut their windows and kindle fires. In the latitude of 40, and ſtill farther ſouth, a river a mile in breadth is, after a fine day, ſometimes frozen quite acroſs in a ſingle night; and the navigation of the broadeſt ſtreams is prevented for about ſix weeks by the ice *. Farther to the north the cold appears ſtill greater, than in the eaſtern parts of Aſia between the ſame parallels; perhaps by reaſon of a greater extent of America toward the Arctic pole. The winter of Labrador, at the latitude of 53, ſeems ſtill more fierce than that of Kamtſchatka in the ſame parallel; and in Greenland, to the north of 60 degrees, the land, excepting ſuch parts as are near the ſea, is covered with perpetual ice and ſnow †.

Europeans are little acquainted with the interior and weſtern parts of North America; but from what little information can be collected it appears, that they enjoy a much milder temperature than the eaſtern ‡. Perhaps in future ages, when theſe weſtern parts of the immenſe North American pen-

* Burnaby's Travels in North America, &c.

† Crantz's Hiſtory of Greenland.

‡ Carver's Travels in North America, Cook's Third Voyage, book iv. chap. 2.

inſula

inſula ſhall have been well cultivated, their temperature will be at leaſt as placid, as that of European and African countries between the ſame parallels. This great ſuperiority of warmth, which the weſtern parts of both continents poſſeſs above the eaſtern, to the north of the torrid zone, is perhaps cauſed in ſome degree by the prevalence of weſterly winds between the tropic and polar circle; theſe winds blowing over an immenſe expanſe of ocean in their paſſage to the weſtern coaſts of each continent, and over a no leſs enormous extent of land in their way to the eaſtern §.

The ſouth of Africa, which advances almoſt to the 35th degree of ſouthern latitude, is the only part of the Old Continent which lies within the ſouthern hemiſphere. Here the temperature ſeems to differ but little from that which obtains, in the correſponding ſeaſons, on the weſtern ſide of this continent, at equal diſtances from the equator ‖. But elſewhere, throughout the ſouthern temperate and frigid zones, the cold, at leaſt of the ſummer ſeaſon, is much greater than in the correſponding climates of the northern. Navigators, who advance

§ In the admirably ingenious Treatiſe of Mr. Kirwan on the barometer, in the Tranſactions of the Iriſh Academy for the year 1788, which I did not ſee until after I had written the above, the weſterly winds of the northern temperate zone are aſſigned as the effect, inſtead of the cauſe, of the predominant cold in the eaſtern parts of the continent. But as this matter ſeems not yet quite cleared of obſcurity, I have ſuffered what I have written to remain for the preſent.

‖ Sparrman's Voyage to the Cape of Good Hope.

toward the Antarctic regions, meet with ice much nearer the equator, than thoſe who ſteer toward the Arctic, and fogs are more abundant in the former than in the latter *. The immenſe Antarctic glacier of the earth ſeems to reach on no ſide leſs than 18 degrees from the pole, and in ſome parts ſeveral degrees farther. Iſlands which lie about the latitude of 54 or 55, have a great degree of cold throughout the ſummer, their hills covered with ſnow †; and thoſe which are ſituate five or ſix degrees farther to the ſouth are buried in ice and ſnow many fathoms deep, at that part of the year when ſummer might be expected to ſhine in all its beauties ‡. From what little is known concerning theſe regions of the ſouth, it alſo appears that their temperature is more equable throughout all ſeaſons than that of the northern, the cold of ſummer ſeeming to be in no great proportion inferior to that of winter §.

The equability of temperature in ſouthern latitudes may reaſonably enough be aſcribed to this cauſe, that the ſouthern hemiſphere conſiſts almoſt entirely of water with a very ſmall proportion of

* Forſter's Collection of Diſcoveries in the North, book iv. chap. 2.

† See the accounts of Terra del Fuego and Southern Georgia in Cook's Voyages.

‡ See the account of Southern Thule in Cook's Second Voyage.

§ See the accounts of New Zealand in Cook's Voyages, that of the Malouines, or Falkland Iſlands in Bougainville's Voyage, &c.

land;

land; it being the well known property of the ocean, to be far leſs affected than the continents by the viciſſitudes of heat and cold, and to communicate in ſome meaſure this uniformity of temperament to the iſlands encompaſſed by its waters. But reaſons of a quite ſatisfactory nature ſeem not as yet aſſignable for the predominance of cold in theſe latitudes, as oceanic air is elſewhere found always to mitigate the rigour of winter.

It has been urged that a vaſt accumulation of froſt muſt take place in theſe latitudes, ſince, from the eccentricity of her orbit ||, the earth is ſomewhat farther from the ſun in the time when it is winter in the ſouthern hemiſphere, than in the oppoſite ſeaſon; and the winter portion of the year, or the time in which the ſun appears to deſcribe the northern half of the ecliptic, is eight days longer than the ſummer portion in the ſame hemiſphere. It is alſo known, that, where the diſtance from the equator is great, the heat of ſummer is later in its arrival in proportion as the latitude is greater; ſo that in ſome tracts of the Arctic zone the heat of ſummer never comes.

It may be advanced, in oppoſition to this, that, as from this eccentricity, the earth is nearer to the ſun in the ſummer of the ſouthern hemiſphere than in that of the northern, the heat of the former ought to be greater than that of the latter. It ſeems no eaſy matter to determine how much colder the winter

|| The nature of this eccentricity may be ſeen in Keill's Aſtronomy, lecture 8.

of the ſouthern hemiſphere ought to be, on account of the greater diſtance of the earth from the ſun, than that of the northern, even on ſuppoſition of its being ſimilarly conſtituted with reſpect to land and water; nor what effect the oblique beams of this luminary, in its leſs diſtance, could operate on theſe regions of ice and water, of which we know this ſouthern portion of the globe to conſiſt. But it muſt be acknowledged, from the poſition of the continents, that, by whatever means the ſouthern ice is amaſſed, warm winds from the land can tend but little to its diſſolution. South America, which projects much farther than Africa toward the Antarctic zone, gradually narrows to the ſouth, in ſuch manner, that its extremity on that ſide is only a continuation of the Andes: Therefore northerly winds, which alone could carry warmth from this quarter, are chilled in their courſe by the everlaſting ice which covers all the ſouthern parts of this enormous chain *.

* This laſt remark has been made by Dr. Robertſon, in his Hiſtory of America. This elegant hiſtorian was not aware of the predominance of cold in the eaſt of Aſia, ſince it appears that he has ſuppoſed this predominance to be peculiar to the American continent.——See his Hiſtory of America, vol i. p. 252, & ſeq.

SECTION

SECTION THE FIFTH.

VEGETABLES—OF THE TORRID ZONE—OF THE TEMPERATE AND FRIGID ZONES—ANIMALS.

Vegetables.

THE various temperature, which obtains in the different regions of the globe, is marked by a variety of vegetable productions; ſome requiring an ardent heat to bring them to perfection, while for others a more moderate degree of warmth ſuffices.

Of the torrid zone.

The fervours of the torrid zone, where ſeconded by ſufficiently copious moiſture, cauſe a moſt rapid and luxuriant vegetation.—Where a wood has been cut away, and the ground ſown with rice, the young ſhoots ſpring ſo ſwiftly from the ſtumps which remain in the ſoil, as to afford full ſhelter to a tiger in a month after the crop is reaped †. The foreſts commonly grow to a vaſt height; the maſts of ſhips of war of the firſt rate being diminutive in compariſon of the trees ‡; and are ſo denſe, as not only to be impervious to the ſtep of man,

† Marſden's Sumatra, p. 62.

‡ This is trifling in compariſon of what ſome authors have aſſerted. Boſman ſays he ſaw trees in Guinea capable of ſhading 20,000 men, and ſo high that a muſket-ſhot could hardly reach the top. Trees however 40 feet in girth ſeem not uncommon.

but

but even with interwoven boughs to exclude the fierceſt beams of the meridian ſun. As the growth is quick, the timber is generally porous and prone to decay; but ſome conſiderable exceptions are to be admitted. The iron-wood receives its name from its prodigious hardneſs, and beſide ſome other ſolid ſorts of timber, the teak tree, the glory of the eaſtern foreſts, is preferable to oak, its wood being more eaſily worked, and at leaſt as durable §. This tree, which grows chiefly in ſuch parts of the continent and iſlands of Aſia as lie between the tropics, but particularly in Pegu, has a ſtately appearance, with broad and large leaves, which when preſſed yield a red juice.

The banyan tree, though uſeleſs except for its ſhade, may for its extreme ſingularity merit notice. It grows in the ſame countries as the teak, but ſeems alſo to be a native of tropical Africa. "It poſſeſſes the uncommon property of dropping roots or fibres from certain parts of its boughs, which, when they touch the earth, become new ſtems, and go on encreaſing to ſuch an extent, that ſome have meaſured, in circumference of the branches, upward of 1000 feet, and have been ſaid to afford ſhelter to a troop of horſe. Theſe fibres, that look like ropes attached to the branches, when they meet with any obſtruction in their deſcent, conform themſelves to the ſhape of the reſiſting body, and thus occaſion many curious metamorphoſes;" one having been ſeen in form of a gate, another like

§ Marſden's Sumatra, &c.

the

the worm in a diſtiller's tub, and others in various other whimſical ſhapes ‖.

But the fervid zone, which begirds the middle of our globe, is moſt remarkable for the profuſion and variety of its indigenous fruits, in which it far ſurpaſſes the other zones. Theſe grow, each in its parent ſoil, without culture, but are capable of melioration by induſtry and art. Of ſuch fruits an extremely ſmall number only can be here ſelected, and theſe very conciſely noticed.

The pine-apple, ſo well known in the hot-houſes of Europe, requires no other culture in theſe ſultry regions, than barely to ſtick the plants in the ground. Oranges and lemons of a great variety of ſpecies grow wild in many places in abundance. The Manguſteen, ſuppoſed peculiar to the tropical parts of the continent and iſles of Aſia, and accounted the moſt delicate fruit in the world, but not rich or luſcious, may be conceived to be of the claſs called Drupes, to which claſs the plumb and peach belong; it being of the ſize of a crab-apple, and conſiſting of a ſoft, ſucculent, and thick rhind, which encompaſſes ſix or ſeven kernels covered with a juicy, and perfectly white ſubſtance, which diſſolves in the mouth, and may be eaten in any quantity without danger of ſurfeit. In the ſame countries chiefly is alſo found the jack, of which the nanca is a ſpecies, remarkable for its vaſt ſize, as it ſometimes weighs not leſs than 60 pounds. This fruit grows from the ſtem of its tree: Its outer

‖ Marſden, p. 130 and 131.

coat

coat is rough, containing a number of kernels, which, when roaſted, eat like cheſnuts, and are encloſed in a pulp of a rich and ſtrong flavour.

The bread-fruit, which ſeems to be principally, if not peculiarly, the growth of the intratropical iſlands of the Pacific and Indian ocean *, is divided into ſeveral ſorts, but may in general be deſcribed as in ſize equal to a newly born child's head, in ſhape ſomewhat oval, and in outward appearance bearing a reſemblance to a round pine-apple, its coat being rough and reticulated. Its pulp, which is white as ſnow, has in ſome degree, when roaſted, the taſte of new bread. It grows not in cluſters, but indifferently on all parts of the branches, which ſpread towards the top, ſo to make, as it were, a round head to the tree, which is large and lofty, with leaves of a deep green, indented like thoſe of the fig-tree, and near 18 inches long. This fruit conſtitutes the chief food of the inhabitants of many iſlands during at leaſt eight months of the year. That which is accounted the genuine ſort has no kernel, and the tree on which it grows is propagated by cuttings of the roots. According to computation a ſingle acre, kept always planted with bread-fruit trees, is ſufficient for the maintenance of twelve perſons during eight months each

* We have a proſpect of ſeeing it ſoon naturalized in the Tropical iſlands of the New World, ſince it has been imported lately for that purpoſe by the very laudable care of his preſent Majeſty George the Third of Great Britain.

year

year for any number of years †. The doorean, which is alſo a great article of food in many of the above mentioned iſlands, is not unlike the bread-fruit in appearance, but larger and rougher on the outſide; rich, ſtrong in the taſte, offenſive in the ſmell to thoſe who are not accuſtomed to it, and of a very heating quality. It grows on a large and lofty tree, whoſe leaves are ſmall in proportion, but in themſelves long and pointed.

The coco-tree, produced, or capable of being produced, in moſt countries between the tropics, is of the palm kind, growing to the height of 40, and ſometimes 60 feet; the trunk of the ſame thickneſs at top as at bottom, but ſomewhat more ſlender in the middle, and ſtrait, excepting that it generally leans a little to one ſide, which is probably cauſed by the weight of fruit when young; the bark ſmooth and of a pale brown colour; the tree deſtitute of branches, but ſending forth from its top about 28 leaves, each near 15 feet long, ſtrait, narrowing to a point, winged or pinnated, and of a yellowiſh colour, but whoſe wings or ſecondary leaves, which grow out ſide-ways from the main ſtalk of the leaf, are green, and near three feet long next the trunk, but diminiſhing in length toward the outward extremity of the main leaf to which they belong. The nuts, which hang from the top of the trunk in cluſters of from eight to 12 each,

† See the account of this fruit in Anſon's Voyage, Cook's Firſt Voyage by Hawkſworth, Sonnerat's Voyage, Marſden's Sumatra, &c.

are commonly larger than a man's head, and covered with a huſky fibrous tegument, within which is the ſhell, which is lined all around on the inſide with a pulp near half an inch thick, of a ſnowy whiteneſs, and conſtituting an agreeable kind of food in flavour like an almond. Within this pulp, out of which an oil is preſſed, is a liquor, which conſtitutes a pleaſant beverage, wonderfully efficacious in the quenching of thirſt. The uſes for which this famous tree furniſhes materials, and the purpoſes to which they are applied by ſome nations, are numerous; its trunk furniſhes timber; the filaments which lie within the bark manufactured into cloth; the fibrous outſide coat twiſted into ropes; the ſhells uſed as drinking veſſels, and the leaves ſerving for thatch, beſide the food, oil, and drink, which it yields; for, like other ſpecies of the palm, it furniſhes the cabbage and the toddy: The former is the top of the tree cut off and boiled for food, which cutting deſtroys the tree: The latter, called alſo palm-wine, whence arrack is diſtilled, is a liquor, which flows from an inciſion made in the ſtalk of a cluſter of the nuts for that purpoſe.

The cacao-tree, called alſo the cocoa, or chocolate-nut tree, which is the indigenous growth of Tropical America, but is principally cultivated in a territory of Terra Firma called Caraccas, grows often to the thickneſs of eight inches, and the height of 12 feet; its branches widely ſeparate from each other, its bark ſmooth, and leaves broad, pointed, and ſomewhat like thoſe of the orange-tree. The fruit, which hangs ſingly from the trunk and main branches,

brances, is of a purple colour when ripe, in ſhape like a melon, and in ſize equal to a ſwan's egg. Its outſide is a huſk, which contains within 20 or 30 ſmall kernels incloſed in a ſubſtance which reſembles the pulp of a roaſted apple. The kernels and pulp compounded are made into chocolate, which the Spaniſh coloniſts perfume, beſide ſome other ingredients, with the fruit of a creeping plant like ivy, called Vanilla or Vinello.—The cacao-tree bears two equal crops in the year.

The nutmeg-tree, though hitherto monopolized as an object of commerce by the Dutch, and cultivated only in the Banda iſlands, grows in many more of the Molucca iſlands, thoſe of New Guinea, and perhaps in ſome others of the Indian and Paciſic oceans ‡. At leaſt three kinds of it are known, one of which bears what is called the Falſe Nutmeg §. In general it grows to the height of the pear tree, with a pithy wood, aſh-coloured bark, pliant branches, and bloſſoms like thoſe of the cherry-tree. In the center of the fruit, which very much reſembles the peach, is the nutmeg covered with a red ſkin called Mace. The outſide of the fruit is thick, and when ripe opens, diſcloſing to view the nutmeg covered with its mace, both of which at length, the ſhell opening wider, fall out and drop to the ground.

‡ See Forreſt's Voyage to New Guinea, and the Diſcovery of the New Hebrides in Cook's Second Vogage, deſcribed by Forſter.

§ See Sonnerat's Voyage to New Guinea.

The

The clove-ſhrub, whoſe culture is confined to Amboyna, and commerce monopolized by the Dutch, is produced in moſt of the Moluccas, and ſome other Aſiatic iſlands between the tropics. It grows in a pyramidal form, to about the ſame height as the laurel, with leaves ſhaped like thoſe of that tree, and with bark reſembling that of the olive. The cloves are its flowers, or rather flower-buds, which grow at the extremities of its branches, and are gathered and dried at a certain ſtage of their growth, at a time when they aſſume a red colour.

The baobab-tree, the growth of the African torrid climes, has a trunk not above 12 or 15 feet in height, but ſometimes near 80 in girth, with vaſt branches, many of which bend toward the earth, ſo as to form altogether a hemiſpherical maſs of verdure near 400 feet in circuit. Its fruit, large as a man's head, contains within its woody ſhell a mealy pulp, which, together with other parts of this extraordinary tree, is ſubſervient to ſeveral uſeful purpoſes ‖.

For trees of an eſculent nature, the growth of tropical regions, may be inſtanced the cabbage, manioc, and ſago trees. Moſt, if not all, ſpecies of the palm yield what is called a cabbage; but one in particular, which is tall and ſtrait like the coco, grows wild in abundance, and bears a large head full of pith, which pith is the part eaten.

The ſago-tree, which grows wild in the eaſtern iſlands of the Indian ocean, but particularly the

‖ This tree was particularly examined by Adanſon, in his Voyage to Senegal.

Moluccas,

Moluccas, where it furniſhes almoſt the only bread uſed by the inhabitants, is of the palm kind, in height about 30 feet, in girth about ſix, without bark, and with only a ſhell or tube of wood two inches thick, filled with a farinaceous and glutinous pith, which is covered with a coat compoſed of longitudinal fibres. The pith extracted, maſhed with water, and then permitted to ſubſide, ſo as to clear itſelf from the fibres which float on the ſurface, is the ſago, which is baked into bread, and prepared in various other ways for food. That which is brought to Europe is granulated, by being made into dough, and paſſed through a ſieve into a ſhallow pot over a fire, by which operation it is half baked, and rendered fit for keeping. The quantity of ſago-flour contained in a tree is commonly 300 pounds weight. It has been computed that the labour of five men, in preparing this food, ſuffices to maintain 100 in idleneſs, and that 14 men may be ſupported by the produce of the ſeventh part of an Engliſh acre of ſago-trees during one year, or that of a whole acre ſucceſſively cut for any number of years *.

The manioc-ſhrub, the produce of the American and African parts of the torrid zone, is of ſeveral kinds, but in general riſes to the height of ſeven or eight feet, and arrives at maturity in 14 or 18 months after the depoſition of the ſeed or layers in the ground. The roots, which reſemble parſnips, are of a white conſiſtence, but with ſkins of

* Forreſt's Voyage to New Guinea.

ſeveral

ſeveral colours according to the ſeveral ſpecies. Theſe roots, after the ſkin is ſcraped off, are grated into what may be called flour; and this flour, after the juice, which in ſome kinds is a ſtrong poiſon, is carefully ſqueezed out, is baked in thin cakes on a griddle, or thin iron plate, over a fire, and thus becomes what is called Caſſava, or Caſſada bread, an inſipid, but nutritious food.

Some other vegetables, objects of commerce to Europeans, may be noticed. Various kinds of pepper grow in tropical countries, but that which is properly called by this name, is found chiefly in the Sunda Iſlands, and the coaſt of Malabar. The plant, on which it grows, is a vine, which begins to bear fruit three years after it is planted; requires always a prop for its ſupport; has a ligneous ſtalk, leaves of a dark green colour, ſhaped like a heart and pointed; and ſmall white bloſſoms, which are ſucceeded by berries of adeep red when ripe, and hanging in bunches like thoſe of the currant-tree. It yields two crops of berries in the year, each berry containing 20 or 30 peppercorns.

Cinnamon is the inner bark of a tree, which grows in ſeveral parts of the torrid zone, but is manufactured to advantage only in Ceylon, where the Dutch have monopolized its commerce. This tree grows to the height of 50 or 60 feet, with ſpreading branches, leaves ſomewhat like thoſe of the bay, roots which yield camphire, and a fruit reſembling an acorn, but ſmaller, whence a fragrant kind of tallow or wax is extracted by boiling.

The

The coffee-tree, the produce of many tropical regions, but cultivated with moſt ſucceſs in the territory of Betelfagui in South Arabia, would riſe to the height of 16 or 20 feet, but is commonly reſtrained by pruning to five or ſix. It begins to bear fruit at the age of about three years. Its branches diverge horizontally ſo as to give it a kind of pyramidal form. Its leaves are four or five inches long, and two broad in the middle where wideſt. Its berries hang in cluſters, are of a red colour when near maturity, and reſemble cherries. Theſe are cleared of their ſkins by mills, in which operation they are divided each into two parts, in which condition they come to Europe.

The tea-ſhrub, which has been ſuppoſed peculiar to China and Japan, as being there alone cultivated with ſucceſs, as an article of export and of home conſumption, is yet produced in other countries, as well in the warmer parts of the temperate zones as in the torrid. It ſeems not often to grow above the height of ſix feet. Its branches and twigs are ſlender, irregularly beſet with leaves, which differ in ſubſtance, ſize, ſhape and quality, according to their age, and the ſituation and nature of the ſoil in which the ſhrub grows, but are in general of a dirty green colour, and when full grown, reſemble thoſe of the garden cherry-tree †. The leaves begin

† Travellers have differed ſo much in their accounts of this famous vegetable, that I dare not ſpeak with more preciſion. It ſeems probable that the youngeſt leaves make the fineſt tea.

It

gin to be gathered after the tree is three years old, and, while freſh, are commonly roaſted in an iron or copper pan over the fire, and, before they cool, are rubbed with the hand on matts ſo as to be curled in the manner in which they are conveyed to Europe.

Sugar, which is extracted from ſeveral trees and ſmaller vegetables, is particularly obtained from the ſugar-cane. This is a reed commonly ſix or eight feet high, an inch in diameter, and full of joints. It is the indigenous growth of the torrid zone, but capable of cultivation in hot extratropical climates. It is filled with the ſweeteſt and leaſt cloying juice imaginable, out of which, by a long proceſs of removing the aqueous parts, is formed the ſugar.

Woods for dying are ſaid to be produced only between the tropics. Among theſe are Brazil-wood and the logwood. The former, called alſo Sapan, is the timber of a conſiderably large tree, with an extremely thick bark, the growth of both Aſia and America. The latter alſo is the wood of a tolerably well ſized tree, whoſe favourite ſoil ſeems to be the American peninſula of Yucatan.

At leaſt five or ſix different kinds of ſhrubs and plants, ſome of which are cultivated in the hot regions without, as well as in thoſe within, the tropics, yield indigo, which is obtained by ſteeping the leaves in water until the juice is extracted,

It ſeems probable alſo, notwithſtanding contrary aſſertions, that more than one kind of this ſhrub may be found. See Oſbeck's Voyage to China, vol. i. p. 247.

and

and drying the ſediment which remains, after the mixture has ſettled, and the water is poured off.

The cotton wool is of various kinds, and furniſhed by a variety of annual plants, perennial ſhrubs, and trees, natives of the intratropical, but cultivated alſo in the hot extratropical regions. Theſe various plants bear large pods, which, when ripe, burſt with an audible crack, diſcloſing to view the vegetable wool contained in a number of ſeparate cells, into which each pod is divided, and in each of which cells is a ſeed encloſed within the wool.

Rice, maize, and millet, are the corn of the torrid zone, but chiefly the firſt, which reſembles barley, and of which perhaps the culture is extended over a much larger portion of the earth's ſurface, than that of wheat. The rice is diſtinguiſhed into two kinds, the upland and lowland; each kind conſiſting of many ſorts, moſt of which are fit for reaping in five months and ten days at fartheſt after the depoſition of the ſeed. The lowland rice is commonly firſt ſown in beds, very thick, whence in about 40 days it is tranſplanted and ſet thinner in fields, which muſt be kept flooded until the rice begins to form the ear, but not in ſuch manner that the water is to remain long ſtagnant, as that would cauſe the crop to rot. The upland rice, which is ſown on dry unflooded fields, in like manner as barley or oats, is firmer, better flavoured, and capable of being kept a longer time than the former; but leſs prolific in its increaſe

from the ſeed, and more ſubject to riſque in the culture.

Millet, which is a ſmall round grain, growing on a channelled ſtalk ſomewhat reſembling a reed, is much leſs an object of culture than rice, in tropical countries. The ſame is the caſe with maize, commonly called Indian corn, which is a very large grain, ſomewhat flat and flinty, growing in round ears or ſpikes which are eight, or even ſometimes 16 inches long, and on ſtalks which are about an inch in diameter, and from four to 13 feet high.

Of the temperate and frigid zones.

The above-mentioned kinds of grain are not confined within the tropics. In the weſtern parts of the Old Continent, rice is cultivated at leaſt as far towards the north as the 45th degree of latitude, but on the eaſtern ſide of both continents, from want of ſufficient heat, its culture is confined to regions which extend not near ſo far toward the pole. Some kinds of maize and millet, but much more eſpecially the latter, come to maturity in latitudes ſtill leſs hot, even beyond the 50th and 55th degree.

It may here be obſerved, That in the countries of the torrid zone, and in thoſe of the temperate which in ſummer's heat reſemble the former, the general mode of ſeparating the grain from the ſtraw, is inſtead of threſhing with the flail, the treading of cattle, which are driven for that purpoſe over the ſheaves placed in proper order: That in the warmer countries of the temperate zone the horſes are fed with barley; oats being there treated only as a weed: That in the ſame regions butter is ſcarcely known,

known, but the oil of olives, which grow plentifully in ſuch climates, uſed in its place for food and other purpoſes; and that in many tracts, in the ſame climates, cheſnuts are the chief ſupport of life to the inhabitants.

In the more ſultry regions of the northern temperate zone, where the fields of rice begin to decline, thoſe of wheat commence; and theſe again, farther to the north, give place to oats and other coarſe kinds of grain. In the weſtern ſide of the Old Continent, barley comes to maturity, even under the Arctic circle; the ſhort period, which that grain requires for its growth, being adapted in ſome meaſure to the contracted ſummer of theſe high latitudes; but even in this meridian tract, which of all others has the warmeſt temperature, ſcarcely any ſpecies of corn can ripen beyond the 68th degree. In theſe rude polar climates the vegetable productions, conſiſting moſtly of moſſes and lichens, are few and ſcanty, but ſome ſorts extremely nutritious; inſomuch that a ſpecies, which is called by botaniſts lichen Icelandicus, is ſaid to afford, in any given meaſure, as much food as twice the quantity of wheat. At leaſt ſo far north as the 75th degree, all vegetation ends with moſs, and the earth preſents to view nothing but naked rocks. Yet even in theſe forlorn climes, where the land utterly refuſes all nouriſhment, ſome tribes of the human race contrive to procure a hard ſuſtenance; the ocean furniſhing marine animals for food, and drift-wood for fuel and other uſes. This drift-wood, which conſiſts of ſeveral kinds of trees, driven by

the winds and currents in conſiderable quantities on the coaſts of the northern ocean, is ſuppoſed to be in a great proportion the growth of Siberia, and to be carried into the ocean by the floods of the great rivers, which flow through that immenſe and woody region *.

Animals. In ſo ſhort a treatiſe very little ought to be ſaid of the animal productions of our globe, which are ſo copiouſly deſcribed in ſome publications of a very modern date †. Fiſh and other marine animals, in immenſe numbers and variety, ſwarm as well in the polar ſeas as in the tropical; but the latter at leaſt appear more animated to the eye; the flying-fiſh, the bonetto, and other natives of the deep, ſometimes exhibiting to the wondering mariner a perpetual ſcene of purſuit and evaſion.

The birds of the torrid zone, in general, ſurpaſs thoſe of other climates in the beauty of their plumage, and brilliancy of colouring; but are much inferior in melody of voice. Among the moſt beautiful of the feathered race, are thoſe which are called Birds of Paradiſe, which are of ſeveral ſpecies, and inhabit the iſlands of New Guinea ‡. The regions which lie between, and in the vicinity of the tropics, are the abodes of the oſtrich tribe, which ſeem to be the largeſt of all birds, and which, to compenſate in ſome degree for the want of power

* See Crantz's Hiſtory of Greenland, book i. chap. 2. ſect. 17.

† Pennant's Zoology, Buffon's Natural Hiſtory, Goldſmith's Animated Nature, &c.

‡ See Forreſt's Voyage to New Guinea.

to

to fly, are endued with ſuch ſwiftneſs of foot as probably to outrun the fleeteſt quadrupeds. That which is principally known by the name of Oſtrich, inhabiting Africa and the neighbouring parts of Aſia, raiſes its head, when it ſtands erect, to the height of ſeven or eight feet, and lays an egg which weighs 15 pounds; nor are the Emu of America and Caſſowary of Eaſtern Aſia of a much leſs extraordinary ſize. At once the greateſt and the ſmalleſt of all birds, which fly, are found in the tropical regions of the New Continent; the condor, a tremendous bird of prey of the vulture claſs, meaſuring ſometimes, from tip to tip of its expanded wings, above 17 feet; while ſome ſpecies of the humming-bird, ſhining with the moſt charmingly vivid plumage, and ſubſiſting on honey which it draws from the flowers with its beak, ſcarcely equal in ſize of body ſome ſorts of bees.

In many iſlands and continental coaſts of the Indian ocean is a ſpecies of ſwallow, which may alſo deſerve notice, on account of its neſt, which is of a glutinous nature, ſuppoſed to be formed of marine foam, after having undergone ſome preparation, by commixture with the ſaliva or ſome other ſecretion with which nature has furniſhed the bird. The neſts are of two kinds, the white and the black. The former, which are more ſcarce, are uſed as a luxurious food, being made an ingredient in ſoups and jellies, and purchaſed by the Chineſe at the rate of about three pounds Engliſh money for the pound weight. The latter make an excellent glue, and are ſold for about two ſhillings a pound ‡.

‡ Marſden's Sumatra, page 141.

Animals

Animals in general, but eſpecially birds, are leſs controuled by climate than vegetables; ſeveral ſpecies of the former being commonly found more widely ſcattered, and capable of ſubſiſting in regions which differ very much in temperature. But climate has its influence alſo in this caſe, ſome degrees of temperature being beſt ſuited to particular tribes of animated beings. Yet Nature has furniſhed many quadrupeds with the means of adapting themſelves to climates the moſt oppoſite. Tranſported from the torrid regions to the polar, they ſoon acquire a far warmer covering than they had before, of thick, fine, and long hair; and retranſported to the torrid, they exchange this no longer neceſſary garb, for coarſe and thinly diſpoſed hairs, which afford but little protection againſt cold. Thus from animals inhabiting the coldeſt regions are procured the fineſt furs, which are elſewhere purchaſed with ſo much avidity, and at ſo high a price.

It has been obſerved that the ſpecies of quadrupeds, amphibious reptiles, and inſects, are leſs numerous in iſlands far diſtant from the continent, than in continental countries. Of the firſt of theſe claſſes they are almoſt deſtitute, until they are ſupplied by importation. This may account for the total abſence of ſerpents in many iſlands placed in various parts of the globe; the importation of ſuch vermin ſeeming, at the beſt, an unprofitable kind of employment.

The torrid zone and its vicinities boaſt of the largeſt kinds, not only of the feathered race, but alſo

alſo of moſt other claſſes of animals. Here are found the greateſt and moſt malignant of the odious tribes of ſerpents, ſome of which are known to be 12 feet in length, and others affirmed on good authority to be more than 30 or even 50. Here are alſo the greateſt as well as the ſmalleſt of the lizard kind, from the huge alligator or crocodile 30 feet long, to the minute houſe-lizard, whoſe length is hardly half an inch. To theſe regions belong by far the largeſt of the flying animals called Bats, ſome of which are equal in ſize to hens, and ſome, particularly in the iſland of Madagaſcar, little inferior to foxes §. To theſe are confined almoſt all the innumerable varieties of the monkey race, from the Orang Ootang, which, in ſize and conformation both internal and external, reſembles man in a ſurprizing manner, to ſome ſpecies, which have ſo little of the monkey figure, as to render it almoſt doubtful to what claſs they belong.

The regions of the Old Continent, which lie within and near the tropics, are the habitations of thoſe enormous but inoffenſive quadrupeds which far ſurpaſs all others in magnitude; the elephant, which is ſometimes 15 or 16 feet high to the top of the back; the rhinoceros, leſs tall, but hardly inferior in bulk of body; and the hippopotamos, inferior to both, yet of amazing ſize ‖. The ſame

§ It has been ſuppoſed, not without ſome probability, that from theſe monſters originated the Fable of the Ancients concerning the Harpyes.

‖ Some curious particulars concerning the elephant, rhinoceros, and hippopotamos, are related in Sparrman's Voyage to the Cape of Good Hope.

are

are the only abode of the greateſt and moſt formidable beaſts of the cat kind; the lion, which often, with a height of five feet to the upper part of the back, meaſures nine feet in length, from the tip of the noſe to the rump or inſertion of the tail; and the ſtreaked tiger, which is ſometimes 11 feet long between the ſame limits, but leſs tall in proportion. In the ſame regions chiefly dwells the peaceful and patient camel, the moſt uſeful of all animals in hot ſandy countries; a ſpecies of which, called the Dromedary, excels in ſpeed, but is inferior in ſtrength. The correſponding climates of the New Continent, which, as well as the Old, contain many inferior ſorts of the feline tribe, as the panther and leopard, are alſo furniſhed with ſome diminutive ſpecies of the camel race, as the Llama, paco, and guanico, which however were not deſigned by Nature for a hot temperature, their favourite manſions being the ſides and ſummits of the frozen Andes.

In all the regions of the New Continent, which lie to the ſouth of the northern tropic, no indigenous quadruped is found equal in ſize to the horſe or cow; but theſe two ſpecies of animals, which have been imported from Europe, have multiplied in ſuch manner as to run wild in herds of many thouſands each. In the northern parts of this continent is the wild rein-deer, and the mooſe. The latter, called alſo the Elk, is by far the largeſt of the deer kind; ſome of them being ſaid to be 10 feet high, and equal in weight to the ox. In the correſponding climates of the Old Continent the

elk

elk is very rarely ſeen, but in its coldeſt regions the rein-deer are propagated, both wild and tame. The latter are of ſignal utility to ſome tribes of mankind, particularly the people of Lapland; ſupplying at once the conveniences of the horſe, the cow, and the ſheep.

SECTION

SECTION THE SIXTH.

MANKIND — HISTORY — EGYPTIANS, PHENICIANS AND ASSYRIANS — THE PERSIANS — GRECIANS — ROMANS — NORTHERN NATIONS — GREEK EMPIRE — SARACENS — FRANKS — NORMANS — CRUSADES — ZINGIS — TAMERLANE — TURKS — REVIVAL OF LITERATURE — DISCOVERIES — OF AMERICA — CIRCUMNAVIGATION OF THE GLOBE — COMMERCE — CARAVANS.

Mankind. OF all tribes of animals, that which ſeems moſt widely diffuſed on the ſurface of the earth is the human ſpecies, enabled as they are, by their mental powers and correſponding frame of body, to procure a ſuſtenance on one ſide in the icy regions of the polar, and on the other in the burning ſands of the meridional climates. By the holy ſcripture we are informed of the ſource, whence the race of man derives its origin; but the hiſtory of its propagation, diſtribution, and various modifications, is, for by far the greateſt part, loſt in the chaos of inextricable oblivion.

Hiſtory. From what little light we have, reaſon is given to conclude, that where the human race firſt became ſo numerous and ſo civiliſed as to form great political ſocieties, were the fertile and warm regions in

in the ſouth and ſouth-weſt of Aſia, together with the neighbouring part of Africa. In China, Hindoſtan, and Egypt, empires exiſted at a very early period. Perhaps if matter could be found for a deciſive inveſtigation, we ſhould be led to attribute the higheſt antiquity of all to Hindoſtan.

A very flouriſhing period of the Egyptian empire was, according to the Newtonian chronology, about 1000 years before the birth of Chriſt, when Seſoſtris, monarch of Egypt, is ſaid to have conquered all the weſt of Aſia to the ſouth of the Euxine, but not to have retained his conqueſts. Somewhat about the ſame early date, an empire of a more noble, but leſs dazzling nature, that of navigation and commerce, was formed by the Phenicians, who, inhabiting the narrow ſhores of Syria, extended their diſcoveries throughout the whole Mediterranean with part of the ocean, communicating the knowledge of letters, arts, and civilization; and, among many other colonies, founded that of Carthage, which in time far outwent the parent ſtate in extent of power, navigation and diſcovery.

Egypt.

Phenicia.

Of a later origin ſeems to have been the Aſſyrian empire, which in the moſt brilliant æra of its greatneſs, commanded an immenſe extent of territory in the ſouth-weſt of Aſia, and had for its capital at one time Nineveh, and afterwards Babylon, cities of immenſe magnitude, but much leſs than ſome have ſuppoſed them *. This mighty ſtate was, after

Aſſyria and Perſia.

* Babylon, which was of the ſame circumference as Nineveh, but of a greater area, as having a ſquare form, is ſuppoſed to have

after various revolutions, finally ſubverted, about 538 years before the birth of Chriſt, by Cyrus the Great, who eſtabliſhed the vaſt Perſian empire, which, at the time of its greateſt extent, comprehended at leaſt all the countries denominated Perſia, Aſiatic Turkey, and Egypt.

The Grecians.

The Grecians, inhabiting a country of narrow dimenſions in the ſouth of Europe, were the firſt of Europeans who emerged from barbariſm—Having early received the rudiments of civilization from the Phenicians, and being divided into many ſmall commonwealths mutually emulous, and under forms of government of a liberal nature, they arrived at length to a pitch of celebrity unequalled in ancient or modern ages. This admirable people were robbed of their liberty by the famous Philip, king of the neighbouring country of Macedon, who, uniting the advantages of abſolute monarchy with thoſe of the Grecian arts, the fruits of a long enjoyed freedom, reduced the Grecian commonwealths to a ſtate of dependance, and formed the project of invading with their combined ſtrength the dominions of Perſia. This project was put in execution by his ſon and ſucceſſor Alexander the Great, who conquered the vaſt Perſian monarchy, about 331 years before the birth of Chriſt, and eſtabliſhed on its ruins the Macedonian empire. But the unity of this enormous empire ended with the life of its founder, for the generals of Alexander

have been 60 miles in compaſs, but computed by D'Anville, at only 25 or 30 in circuit.

divided

divided it among themſelves, after his death, into a number of ſeparate, independent, and often mutually inimical, kingdoms.

The arts of civilized life were imparted by the Grecians to the people of Italy; among whom aroſe a political phenomenon unparalleled in hiſtory, a ſtate, which from a minute and contemptible origin, no other than the coalition of a few ſhepherds and vagabonds, arrived, by a ſlow, but ſteady and firm growth, to the acquiſition of irreſiſtible power, and an enormous extent of dominion. This was Rome, which was founded by Romulus about 627 years before the birth of Chriſt, according to the Newtonian chronology; and which, about 145 years before the ſame era, put a final period to the exiſtence of the mighty Carthage, the greateſt commonwealth, which the world had hitherto ſeen, in reſpect of riches and naval power. This potent Roman empire, which from an elective and limited monarchy had been converted into a republic, and from a republic was finally changed into an abſolute monarchy under Auguſtus, 28 years before the commencement of the Chriſtian era, contained, in the utmoſt extent of its dominion, Egypt, Barbary, the Spaniſh peninſula, France, Italy, South Britain, the parts of Germany which lie ſouth of the Danube, the countries eaſt of Germany on both ſides of that river, and almoſt all which the Turks now poſſeſs both in Europe and Aſia. Romans.

Above 200 years before the Chriſtian era a chief, named Arſaces, revolting from the divided empire of the Macedonians, had founded a kingdom, which

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in time extended over all the provinces now comprehended under the general appellation of Perſia, but which was long called Parthia, and afterwards Perſia, according as the ſeat of government was in the former or the latter province. This kingdom was the only ſtate which continued to defeat the invaſions of the Romans, and, by military proweſs aided by the nature of the country, to ſet a limit to their dominion. But the enormous fabric of Roman grandeur, which had been gradually raiſed to ſuch amazing eminence by the temperance, patriotiſm, and fortitude of the early Romans, was gradually ſapped, and at laſt brought to total ruin, by the pride, luxury, and narrow ſelfiſh ſpirit of their degenerate poſterity. The inhabitants of the numerous provinces, which the Romans had ſubdued, and made parts of their empire, had indeed received the benefits of civilization from their conquerors, but were alſo enſlaved and debaſed, ſo as to be rendered incapable of martial exertions; while the armies, which ought to be their defence, enervated by a long courſe of corruption, and a relaxation of diſcipline, became unable to protect them againſt the ferocious tribes of barbarians, who then thinly inhabited the immenſe regions of the north, which comprehended Tartary, Ruſſia, Scandinavia, Poland, and the parts of Germany north of the Danube. Theſe ſavage tribes, moſt of whom followed an entirely paſtoral courſe of life, like many Tartarian hordes of the preſent age, began to make dreadful incurſions into the Roman provinces about the middle of the third century after the birth of Chriſt.

The northern nations.

Chriſt. Their invaſions firſt of a deſultory kind, became afterwards more alarming; whole nations migrating at once with their cattle, and fixing their ſettlements in the invaded countries which they barbarouſly ravaged and laid waſte; inſomuch that, about the year 476 of the Chriſtian era, when Auguſtulus, the laſt who bore the title of Emperor of Rome, ceaſed to reign, all the Roman provinces to the weſt of Greece, including Italy itſelf, were entirely in the poſſeſſion of the Barbarians. The ſavage nations, who deſtroyed the Roman empire, and reduced its flouriſhing provinces into priſtine barbariſm, were known under many names, moſt of which ſeem to be comprehended in the three general appellations of Goths, Vandals and Huns. The laſt were certainly of the Mongol or Calmuc race. The two former ſeem to have come from the ſhores of the Baltic; the Goths from the more eaſtern, and the Vandals from the more weſtern †.

Another empire however ſtill remained, which arrogated to itſelf the title of the Roman, but which obtained with more propriety the appellation of the Greek Empire. The emperor Conſtantine, ſirnamed the Great, who had, about the year 330, removed the ſeat of government from Rome to Byzantium, which he called Conſtantinople, had thereby given cauſe to what after his time took place, a diviſion of the Roman dominions into two empires, the eaſtern and the weſtern. The latter became the The Greek empire.

† See Gibbon's Hiſtory of the Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.

prey

prey of the ſavage tribes, but the former, though grievouſly ravaged in many parts, ſubſiſted long after with much outward ſplendour, and ſome real ſtrength, its territory ſtretching from the Adriatic Sea to the River Tigris, and from Tartary to Ethiopia, comprehending nearly the ſame countries which now pay obeiſance to the Sultan of Turkey.

The ſame Conſtantine had eſtabliſhed throughout his dominions, in the year 324, the religion of Chriſt; which, in ſpight of perſecution, had, from its firſt promulgation in Judea, been gradually propagated, and, before the reign of this monarch, gained the majority of his ſubjects. This divine religion was embraced by the rude nations who ſeized the Roman provinces, and though miſerably miſunderſtood and corrupted, it yet ſerved in ſome degree to mitigate their ferocious and ſanguinary manners. From the ſettlement of theſe nations in the weſtern empire aroſe the ſtates which at preſent ſubſiſt in the weſt of Europe; but the dark night of ignorance, which, on the extinction of the Roman civilization, ſettled on thoſe regions, remained many centuries before it was diſpelled by the rays of ſcience. The feudal ſyſtem of government, or rather anarchy, eſtabliſhed by the barbarians, was too well adapted to perpetuate this ignorance and the miſery of mankind. The lands of the conquered countries were diſtributed among the conquerors, and each proprietor was bound by his tenure to hold himſelf in readineſs for military operations in defence of their common acquiſitions. Theſe grants of land, held at firſt only during

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ing the pleaſure of the prince, were retained afterward for life, and at laſt became hereditary ‡. Each chieftain became a deſpotic monarch in his own eſtate, the people ſunk into abject ſlavery, and each kingdom, rent in pieces by multitude of petty tyrants, was in a ſtate of perpetual diſorder, and often laid waſte by their mutual hoſtilities.

About a century and an half after the ſettlement of the northern nations in the weſtern empire, the fiction of a new religion in Arabia cauſed an extenſive and memorable revolution. Mohammed, improperly called Mahomet, declaring himſelf the immediate Apoſtle of God, commiſſioned to eradicate the errors of religion, and reform the manners of mankind, was obliged by the violence of his fellow-citizens to quit his native city of Mecca, and take refuge in Medina. This flight of Mohammed, called the Hegira, which happened in the year of Chriſt 622, is the era whence Mohammedans compute the dates of events, in like manner as Chriſtians reckon from the birth of Chriſt. From Medina the ſelf-commiſſioned prophet diffuſed his doctrines with rapid ſucceſs, enforcing his religion with the ſword, where argument was ineffectual. A fervid zeal, which he infuſed into his followers, for propagating the new faith, expired not with its author. Fanaticiſm continued to unite the otherwiſe diſcordant Arabian tribes in their impetuous invaſions of the neighbouring countries, and ſuch was

The Saracens.

‡ See the Introduction to Robertſon's Hiſtory of Charles the Fifth.

the career of their victories, that, in the firſt century of the Hegira, the empire of the Arabs, or Saracens, as they have been called by Chriſtian writers, extended from India to the Atlantic, and contained all Perſia, Syria, Arabia, Egypt, Barbary, and Spain. They alſo carried their victorious arms, but without making ſuch permanent ſettlements, into France, the iſles of the Mediterranean, Italy, and Anatolia, and twice laid ſiege to the Imperial city of Conſtantinople.

The head of the Saracen empire was the calif, or ſucceſſor of Mohammed, veſted at once with regal and Pontifical power, whoſe place of reſidence was firſt Mecca, afterwards Damaſcus, and laſtly Bagdad, famous in Arabian ſtory. The Saracens, illiterate while engaged in conqueſt, became afterwards the cultivators of ſcience and civilization; but correſponding to the celerity of its growth was the ſwift decay of their empire, convulſed by faction, and diſmembered by the ambition of viceroys, who uſurped in their ſeveral provinces independent power; ſo that, in the tenth century of the Chriſtian era, while a Calif of the Ommiad family claimed at Cordova in Spain the excluſive right of being the ſucceſſor of Mohammed, and another of the Fatimite faction urged the ſame pretenſions at Cairoan in Barbary, the Calif of Bagdad of the Abaſſide race loſt all temporal power; and became alternately the vaſſal of contending potentates, who affected to reverence and protect him as the repreſentative of Mohammed §. An end was put to the

§ The Ommiads were diſtinguiſhed by a white colour, the Fatimites with green, and the Abaſſides with black.

very ſhadow of the Califate by the Moguls under the ſucceſſors of Zingis, who, in the rapid courſe of their victories, ſtormed and ſacked the city of Bagdad in the year 1258.

The Franks and Normans.

When the empire of the Saracens was diſunited by the pretenſions of different families to the throne of the Califs, a new empire, that of the Franks, threatened an eſtabliſhment in the weſt of Europe. Charlemagne, king of France, who rendered himſelf maſter of the greater part of Italy, Germany, Hungary, and part of Spain, received from the Pope, in the year 800, the vain title of Emperor of Rome; but, after his death, his vaſt dominions were divided among his ſons; the noxious ariſtocracy of the feudal barons, which could be controuled only by ſuch an extraordinary genius as his, revived and acquired ſtill greater influence; and a new race of barbarians, called Normans and Danes, from the coaſts of the Baltic, who, even in the life of this great prince, had infeſted the coaſts of France and other countries with piratical ſquadrons, proceeded in the work of deſtruction with more ſucceſsful audacity, marking their progreſs with blood and deſolation. Yet theſe ravagers made no permanent eſtabliſhments of any great conſequence, except in France and Italy. In France the duchy of Normandy was, with ſome other portions of land, ceded to Rollo the Norman leader about the year 900; and a body of adventurers of this formidable race, having formed a ſettlement in the ſouth of Italy, conquered the kingdom of Naples about the year 1060.

The Cruſades.

At the end of the eleventh century a violent commotion was excited in Europe, by a ſpirit of religious warfare. Jeruſalem, the ſcene of our Saviour's paſſion, was, in thoſe times of gloomy ſuperſtition, an object of extreme veneration to the Chriſtian world; and to it vaſt numbers of Chriſtians continually reſorted, to pay their devotions at the holy ſepulchre. So long as the Saracens were maſters of the place, theſe devout viſitants met moſtly with a reaſonable indulgence and protection; but the uncivilized Turks, having conquered Syria about the year 1076, treated the pilgrims with great inſolence and cruelty.—Reſentment burned in the breaſts of the weſtern Chriſtians; the flame was fanned by the vehement harangues of a famous fanatic named Peter the Hermit; and Urban the Second, the then Pope, earneſtly recommended a union of Chriſtian potentates for the expulſion of the Turks from the Holy Land. In obedience to the ſummons, vaſt armies were poured from Europe by the way of Conſtantinople into Aſia, the Mohammedan powers were overwhelmed by the torrent; and, in the year 1099, the object of the mighty enterprize was attained by the conqueſt of Jeruſalem, of which, with the adjacent territories, Godfrey of Bouillon, an heroic Frenchman, was elected king. But all theſe dear-bought acquiſitions, obtained by an enormous waſte of blood and treaſure, were totally loſt in leſs than two centuries; the Mohammedan forces gradually driving thoſe of the Chriſtians from the interior country, and at length compleating their expulſion by the taking of the maritime

maritime town of Acre in the year 1291: Yet in ſeven powerful armaments of the European Chriſtians againſt the diſciples of Mohammed, had a red or bloody croſs been diſplayed, whence theſe invaſions received the well known appellation of the Cruſades.

Zingis.

While the bearers of the martial croſs contended for a ſlender territory in the weſt of Aſia, a new nation of warriors, iſſuing from the Tartarian deſerts, ſpread ſuch a ſcene of deſolation and conqueſt as is not to be paralleled in the records of time. "From the ſpacious high lands between China, Siberia, and the Caſpian Sea, the tide of emigration and war has repeatedly been poured *." ——In thoſe vaſt uncultivated wilds, where wandering tribes of paſtoral people only dwelled, Zingis Khan †, a name renowned in the hiſtory of blood, having gained the ſovereignty of the Mogul nations, about the year 1206 ‡, commenced a career of conqueſt, which, being continued for 90 years, during his own reign and that of his ſucceſſors, extended the dominion of the Moguls over moſt of the immenſe regions of Tartary, all China and Corea, great part of the farther peninſula of India, all Perſia, the countries about Caucaſus, and almoſt all the regions which conſtitute the modern Aſiatic Turkey, and European Ruſſia. Their de-

* Gibbon's Hiſtory of the Decline, &c.

† Zingis ſignifies greateſt, and Khan prince.

‡ For an account of the Mogul, or rather Mongol nations, under which the Calmucs are included, ſee Tooke's Ruſſia, alſo the deſcription of Tartary in this work.

ſolating

ſolating ravages were carried as far to the weſt as Lignitz in Sileſia and Neuſtadt in Auſtria § and, in the long courſe of deſtruction, many millions periſhed by the ſword of the Moguls: But the enormous miſ-ſhapen maſs of their empire, haſtily erected, and of ill adjuſted parts, quickly fell in pieces by its own weight. The Moguls found the common fate of all conquerors of China. That vaſt, populous and civilized country became the ſeat of government; the conquerors were blended with the conquered, and their country became a province of the Chineſe dominion; while Perſia and other diſtant conqueſts, connected by but feeble ties of political union, ſoon forgot all obedience to the Mogul ſovereign, and reſumed their independence.

Tamerlane.

In the following century after the ravages of theſe Pagan warriors, the Tartarian regions produced a Mohammedan conqueror, famous or infamous for an extenſive havoc of the human race. Timour beg, more commonly called Tamerlane, being made monarch, about the year 1370, of an extenſive country, then called Zagatai, on the eaſt of the Caſpian, extended his ravages and his conqueſts over Perſia, the ſouth-weſtern regions of Tartary, great part of Ruſſia, Hindoſtan, and the countries which lie between Perſia and the Helleſpont: but death put a period to his deſolating operations in the year 1405, when he was in full march from Samarcand, his capital, to invade

§ Gibbon's Hiſtory, &c.

China.

China ‖.——His immenſe empire, which ſtretched from the Irtiſh and Volga to the Perſian Gulph, and from the Ganges to Damaſcus and the Greek Archipelago, was ſoon diſmembered, and his family ſunk into a ſtate comparatively obſcure; excepting that one of his offspring erected a throne in the north of Hindoſtan, which in time commanded a vaſt extent of territory, which has been ſtiled the Empire of the Great Mogul.

The Turks.

Even ſo early as the ſixth century, a mighty paſtoral nation, bearing the name of Turks, had held dominion over the Tartarian deſerts to an immenſe extent, but ſeem to have had their chief encampments in the vicinity of the Altäian chain *. This potent people were in time broken into many diviſions, which underwent a variety of revolutions. Some tribes, advancing to the ſouth, exchanged their Pagan rites for the religion of Mohammed, and, in the decline of the Califate, founded ſome dynaſties which ruled ſucceſſively in Perſia and the neighbouring parts. But the laſt and only permanent dynaſty was that of Athman, called more frequently Othman and Ottoman, who, marching from the countries eaſt of the Caſpian Sea into Anatolia, about the year 1299, gave beginning to the empire of the Ottoman Turks which ſtill ſubſiſts. The ſucceſſors of Othman ſoon conquered Anatolia, and paſſing into Europe, reduced Romania or Thrace, and the contiguous countries; but their power was

‖ Gibbon's Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.

* Gibbon's Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire.

laid

laid low for a time by the rude tempeſt of Tamerlane's arms, which burſt on Anatolia in the year 1402, when the vaſt hoſt of the Turks met a total defeat near Angora, and Bajazet their ſultan remained a captive with the enemy. Their abaſement however was but temporary; their hopes ſoon revived, ſo that they ſeem to have reſumed their full vigour about the year 1421, and the Greek empire, which had weathered many bitter blaſts, and had ſubſiſted above 1000 years, ſince its ſeparation from the Roman empire of the weſt, was reduced by their conqueſts within the environs of Conſtantinople; and, in the year 1453, finally ſubverted by the ſtorming of that city under the ſultan Mohammed the Second.

Revival of literature.

The downfall of the Greek empire accelerated the revival of learning and civilization in the more weſtern regions of Europe, which though now ſupereminent in ſcience, arts, and arms, had for ages been involved in Gothic barbariſm.—Italy was deſtined a ſecond time to receive and transfuſe the light of ſcience imparted from the Greeks, among whom it was never totally extinguiſhed until the Ottoman conqueſts of Conſtantinople. The Italians, happily for mankind, had been prepared for its reception by the previous enjoyment of liberty. The princes and barons of Europe, engaged in the cruſades, had, in order to ſupport the enormous expences of this foreign warfare, been obliged to emancipate from feudal ſlavery, in conſideration of ſums paid on that account, many towns and cities, which thereby became a kind of commonwealths, governed

governed immediately by magiſtrates of their own election. Such was the ſpirit of emancipation in Italy, that almoſt all the great cities of that country were free before the end of the thirteenth century, and ſome had grown into reſpectable republics, rich and powerful by a lucrative commerce. In this flouriſhing condition of the Italian ſtates, many Greeks, in the decline and fall of their empire, took refuge among them, and imported their language and their books. By the invention of Paper, which had happened in the eleventh century, and that of Printing which took place in the fifteenth, books were multiplied and eaſily purchaſed. Alſo the invention of the mariner's compaſs, which is ſaid to have been diſcovered by Flavio Gioia, a citizen of Amalfi in the kingdom of Naples, in the year 1302, enabled the navigator to ſteer a far bolder courſe than formerly, to commit himſelf intrepidly to the boundleſs ocean, to explore immenſe regions whoſe very exiſtence had been totally unknown, and even practically to demonſtrate the ſpherical form of our globe by its actual circumnavigation.

Diſcoveries.

Yet a long ſpace elapſed before any ſuitable benefit was derived from an invention of ſuch vaſt importance. Of all European nations the Portugueſe were by far the earlieſt in their endeavours to enlarge the ſphere of human knowledge, by removing the veil which concealed from the eyes of Europe an immenſe portion of the habitable globe. Excepting the maritime countries waſhed by the Mediterranean and Red Seas, Africa was unknown.

On

On the weſtern ſide of this immenſe peninſula, the Portugueſe began their diſcoveries by doubling Cape Non, a promontory of Barbary, in the year 1412; and, advancing gradually ſouthward by ſucceſſive expeditions, their fleet, under the command of Bartholomew Diaz, arrived at length in the year 1486 at the ſouthern extremity, which was afterwards called the Cape of Good Hope. The Hope, on account of which this name was given, was confirmed in the year 1498, when Vaſco de Gama, the Portugueſe admiral, doubling the famous promontory, and finding his way to India, opened an entirely new channel for the trade of Europe with the vaſt opulent regions of South Aſia; a trade which had long enriched Conſtantinople, and afterwards the Italian commonwealths. To ſupply the people of Europe with eaſtern luxuries, the goods of India had been carried, ſometimes over land from Bagdad by the way of Palmyra to the Syrian ports, ſometimes by the Red Sea and Alexandria in Egypt, and ſometimes over land to the Caſpian Sea and the Volga, whence they were brought by land-carriage to the Don, and thence conveyed to the Euxine and Mediterranean.—The Portugueſe in their diſcoveries proſecuted the triple ſcheme of commerce, conqueſt, and the propagation of the Roman Catholic religion. They built forts, and reduced, under their government, large maritime tracts on both the weſtern and eaſtern coaſts of Africa, ſome of which ſtill remain annexed to the crown of Portugal. They made ſimilar ſettlements, but with leſs

permanent

permanent ſucceſs, in the Indian regions. From theſe they were expelled in the following century by the natives and Dutch, and the Indian commerce has been ſhared by other nations of Europe.

Diſcovery of America.

Before the navigation from Europe round Africa to India was accompliſhed by the Portugueſe, the genius of Columbus had diſcloſed a new world to the aſtoniſhed Europeans by the diſcovery of America. This extraordinary man, moſt deſervedly celebrated, born a ſubject of Genoa, but employed in the ſervice of Portugal, had long conceived, from his knowledge of the ſpherical form of the earth, the practicability of ſailing to India by a weſterly, as well as by an eaſterly courſe. Making application ſucceſſively to the governments of Genoa, Portugal, Spain, and England, for ſhips to attempt the voyage, and combating for many years, with wonderful patience and perſeverance, all the obſtacles, which ignorance, prejudice, and bigotry oppoſed to his ſublime project, he at laſt obtained from the generoſity of a female, Iſabella Queen of Spain, the command of three ſmall veſſels, with which he diſcovered the principal iſlands of America in the year 1492. In 1498 he found the main continent, and entered the river Orinoco; yet Amerigo Veſpucci, a native of Florence in the ſervice of Spain, pretending to be the firſt diſcoverer of the main land in 1499, had unjuſtly the honour of giving the appellation of America to the New Continent from his own name.

This mighty diſcovery of Columbus, which ought to have tended immediately, as well as ultimately, to

to the general good of mankind, was miſerably abuſed by the Spaniards, who, with ſuch horrid cruelty as has fixed a ſtain of indelible infamy on the Spaniſh name, extirpated the inhabitants of the iſlands, and butchered, with circumſtances of ſhocking aggravation, ſeveral millions of people in the fineſt regions of the continent. The victories obtained over numerous hoſts of naked Americans, among whom letters, arts, and diſcipline were unknown, by ſmall bands of ferocious adventurers, thirſting for blood and treaſure, and guided by private intereſted leaders, to whom the Spaniſh court had made grants of land, were partly owing to the terror inſpired by the horſes on which ſome of the Spaniards fought *, theſe animals being then totally unknown in the New World, and ſtill more to gunpowder, an European invention of the fourteenth century †, which ſeemed to arm theſe deſtroyers with thunder and lightning, the awful artillery of heaven. Yet, boundleſs as was the ambition of the Spaniards, and great as their power was at that period, they were unable to graſp the whole of the new world. Other Europeans found their way to its ſhores, planted colonies, and gradually extended their dominion in the boundleſs waſte, particularly the Portugueſe, Engliſh, and French. But we are not to ſuppoſe that the bloody

* The Americans imagined the man and horſe to compoſe one animal, a monſter which devoured men. See Robertſon's Hiſtory of America. Alſo Herrera.

† It has been aſſerted that gunpowder was known in China ſome centuries earlier than in Europe, but the ſagacious and animated Gibbon (Decline and Fall of the Roman Empire) has rendered this at leaſt doubtful.

example,

example of the Spaniards was imitated by all the other Europeans who made ſettlements in the New World. The Engliſh and French planted colonies without attacking the natives, and made no wars, excepting ſuch as were of a defenſive nature. Neither are we to imagine that all the aboriginal Americans were found by their European diſcoverers in an equal ſtate of barbariſm. Many were in the loweſt condition of ſavage ſociety, and others had made in compariſon large advances toward civilization, particularly the Peruvians and Mexicans, who had eſtabliſhed empires of great extent and formed a numerous population.

Circumnavigation of the Globe.

To the ignorance of the Roman pontiff, with reſpect to the globular form of the earth, the world is indebted for its firſt circumnavigation. Pope Alexander the Sixth, who, like his predeceſſors, was very liberal to grant what could never be his, beſtowed to the Spaniards, by a Bull iſſued in the year 1493, all the Pagan countries which they could diſcover by ſailing to the weſt, from an imaginary line drawn directly north and ſouth 300 leagues weſtward of the Azores; and to the Portugueſe, all ſuch diſcoveries made by an eaſterly navigation from that line; without ever dreaming that the two nations, by proſecuting their diſcoveries in theſe contrary directions, might, each in their turn, ſail quite round the globe, and conſequently have an equal claim to the ſame countries ‡. Magalhaens,

‡ A witty nobleman, whoſe Iriſh reſidence is in my neighbourhood, obſerved that this was only the Pope's *Bull*; alluding to the equivocal ſignification of the term in the Engliſh language.

corruptly

corruptly called Magellan, preſuming to be better acquainted than the vicar of Chriſt with the real figure of the earth, propoſed to the Spaniſh court to perform a navigation to Aſia by a weſterly courſe, and thereby give Spain as good a title as Portugal to the rich commerce of India. In attempting the ſame project Columbus had found the New World, which he miſtook at firſt for a part of Aſia; and from this miſtake the tropical regions of America received, and ſtill retain, the denomination of the Weſt Indies. Magalhaens, diſcovering the long ſtrait which now bears his name, and finding his way through it into the immenſe ocean, to which he gave the epithet of Pacific from the ſerene weather almoſt always experienced in it, at leaſt in that part of it which lies in the torrid zone, arrived at the Ladrone Iſlands, and afterwards at the Philippines, where he unfortunately fell by the hands of the natives, in the year 1521; but his veſſels returned to Europe by the Cape of Good Hope.

A ſpirit of diſcovery, excited by the firſt bold adventurers of Portugal and Spain, animated for ſome time the maritime nations of Europe; and repeated attempts were made, but all in vain, to find a paſſage from the Atlantic to the Pacific, ſometimes by a north-eaſterly navigation by the north of the Old Continent, and ſometimes by a north-weſterly on the ſide of the New. A long languor ſucceeded with reſpect to ſuch enterprizes, until our preſent ſovereign, George the Third, revived the curioſity of Europe, and employed, among other navigators,

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the ever memorable Cook, whoſe ample diſcoveries, and accurate obſervations, have made a moſt valuable acceſſion to our ſtock of geographical knowledge.

Commerce.

The early diſcoveries of the Portugueſe and Spaniards drew the general commerce of the earth into nearly the ſame channels in which it ſtill continues to flow. From the rich mines of America, in poſſeſſion of Spaniſh and Portugueſe coloniſts, great quantities of treaſure are annually wafted to Europe in the fleets of Spain and Portugal; but by far the greater part of it, inſtead of circulating in the country of its importers, goes immediately into the hands of the Dutch, Engliſh, and other manufacturing nations, in exchange for goods which are ſent to ſupply the conſumption of theſe two kingdoms at home, and their extenſive dominions abroad. Nor is this treaſure, thus imported from America, retained in Europe. Moſt of the ſilver, of which it chiefly conſiſts, is carried round the Cape of Good Hope to Southern Aſia, to purchaſe the various highly eſteemed merchandizes of theſe wealthy regions. To Aſia from the New Continent flows another ſtream with a more direct courſe. One or two veſſels of huge burden, carrying ſcarcely any thing but ſilver, ſail annually from the Mexican port of Acapulco to Manilla in the Philippine Iſlands, where they find a rich freight of Aſiatic luxuries. India and China abſorb theſe inceſſant drains of the precious metals, but "China is ſuppoſed, with reaſon, to be the gulph,

gulph, which, ſooner or later, ſwallows up all the ſilver of India, and of America too *.

The vaſt regions of Africa, which lie within the torrid zone, are perhaps as abundant in gold, if the mines were worked, as the countries of South America in ſilver; but are chiefly frequented by traders on accout of ſlaves, which unhappily conſtitute the ſtaple export of that as yet unfortunate portion of the globe. From the weſtern coaſt alone of this tract of continent above 100,000 ſlaves have been ſhipped by Europeans in one year for their American ſettlements. The annual export from the ſame is, on an average, above 60,000, beſides thoſe who are brought by land to Barbary and Egypt, and thoſe who are exported from the eaſtern coaſt to Aſia. The wretched mortals, thus purchaſed like beaſts of burthen, and doomed to a life of toilſome bondage, are captives taken in wars, which, on this very account, are very frequent among the princes of theſe countries; convicts, ſometimes of real, but much oftener of pretended crimes; or perſons violently ſeized in a predatory manner, openly or by ſtealth. But it is to

* Marſden's Sumatra, page 289, 4to. Some treaſure is carried back from India, by various accidents. Europeans, who amaſs fortunes by war or traffic, carry their effects to their native countries; and Hindoſtan has been ſometimes plundered by foreign conquerors, who have deprived it of immenſe treaſures. A ſtriking inſtance was that of Couli Khan the monarch of Perſia, who invading Hindoſtan in the year 1739, plundered it of at leaſt 80,000,000l. See the Abbé Raynal's Hiſtory of the European Settlements, vol. ii. page 117. Dublin 1779.

be

be hoped, from the liberal and humane ſentiments which are gaining ground in Europe, that this abominable traffic of the human ſpecies will, ſo far as Europeans are concerned, be in time aboliſhed †.

The interior commerce, which ſubſiſts between the different countries of the New Continent, is conducted moſtly by means of the many navigable rivers, which flow through thoſe vaſt and well watered regions; but where this convenience is wanting, recourſe is had to mules and other beaſts of burden. That of Aſia is managed both by means of the rivers and by caravans. By a caravan is underſtood a company of traders, aſſociated for the occaſion, who carry from one country to another their merchandize loaded on the backs of camels, horſes, or other quadrupeds; encamping, when they march through the deſerts, at the end of every ſtage, or ſheltering themſelves in ſuch houſes as they can procure when their route lies through a well inhabited country. Theſe caravans ſometimes conſiſt, beſide a ſtill greater number of beaſts, of ſome hundreds, or even thouſands of perſons; travellers commonly taking the opportunity of aſſoci-

† Whatever ſpecious arguments are adduced to juſtify or palliate this infamous traffic, they all tend to one point, partial intereſt, or the apparent advantage which one part of mankind may have in oppreſſing another. But true philoſophy concludes, and the all-wiſe and all-good Author of Nature has ſo ordained, that no ſpecies of oppreſſion ever contributes to the real happineſs of the oppreſſor; and the time may yet come when poſterity will wonder at the impolitic inhumanity of their anceſtors.

ating themſelves with theſe companies on account of the protection which they afford. In the northern parts of the peninſula of Africa, in Arabia, Perſia, and Great Tartary, where vaſt plains of ſand abound, and rivers are few, almoſt the ſole mode of traffic and of travelling is by caravans, and almoſt the only beaſt employed in them is the camel, which is well fitted by its leathern hoof to tread the ſands, and by its internal ſtructure to bear for many days a want of water.

SECTION THE SEVENTH.

GOVERNMENT—OF EUROPE—OF ASIA—OF AFRICA—OF AMERICA—RELIGION—JEWS—CHRISTIANS—MOHAMMEDANS—PAGANS—THE METEMPSYCHOSIS.

WITH reſpect to the government and religion, as well as the hiſtory and commerce of mankind, a few brief obſervations, by way of giving ſome kind of general outline, are to be made. In government, as in many other reſpects, Europe differs widely from the reſt of the globe. So cloſe and regular a correſpondence, and ſuch a mutual connexion, ſubſiſts between the European ſtates, that they form one vaſt political ſyſtem, the chief object of whoſe general policy is to maintain a balance of power, or to prevent ſuch an aggrandizement of any one potentate as might threaten to reduce the reſt to a ſtate of dependence. In the ſeat of government of every nation ambaſſadors from almoſt all the reſt reſide, charged with the buſineſs of their reſpective potentates: In quarrels between nations a formal appeal is made to the juſtice of the others; and alliances are formed to prevent any power, or combination of powers, from the acquiſition of ſuch a weight as might deſtroy the equi-

Government. Of Europe.

librium of the whole.—" After the fierceſt and moſt lengthened conteſt, all the rival nations are exhauſted, none are conquered. At length a peace is concluded, which reinſtates each in poſſeſſion of almoſt the ſame power and the ſame territories ‡." No ſtates but thoſe of Europe maintain dominions and colonies in far diſtant regions. To the maritime potentates of this ſuper-eminent portion of the globe are ſubject almoſt all the iſlands of Africa, conſiderable tracts of coaſt in that immenſe peninſula, many iſlands of Aſia, with ſome tracts of continent in that diviſion of the earth, moſt of the American iſlands, and a very great portion of the New Continent §.

Beſides ſome, which are either too minute to be noticed in this general view, or belong to a particular ſyſtem, ſo as not be conſidered as diſtinct potentates, in Europe are eighteen ſtates, of which four are commonwealths, the reſt monarchies. Of the four commonwealths two, thoſe of Venice and Genoa, are ariſtocracies. Each of the two others, that of the Swiſs Cantons, and that of the United

‡ Robertſon's Charles the Fifth.

§ A ſtriking reſemblance may be found between the ſyſtem of modern Europe and that of ancient Greece, in their ſuperiority over the reſt of mankind in arms and arts, their general connexion, alliances, wars, and colonies. The likeneſs would be ſtill greater, if a general aſſembly of the repreſentatives of the European ſtates are held at any particular place, like that of the Amphictyons. The colonies of Europe will doubtleſs in time be as independent as thoſe of ancient Greece: a ſtrong inſtance of which has already been given by the revolution of the Britiſh colonies in North America.

Provinces

Provinces of the Netherlands, is rather a federal union of many commonwealths, in which is a mixture of ariſtocracy and democracy, than a ſingle republic Of the fourteen monarchies two, thoſe of Germany and Ruſſia, are in the ſtrict import of the word, ſtiled Empires; the former elective and limited, the latter hereditary and abſolute. The ſovereign of the Turks, a deſpotic and hereditary prince, whoſe more proper title is the Turkiſh, or Ottoman Sultan, is ſometimes alſo denominated Emperor.—The eleven remaining monarchies, excepting the Roman popedom, are termed Kingdoms. Of thoſe that of Britain is limited and hereditary; that of Poland elective, and limited within ſo narrow bounds, as to be in fact an ariſtocratical commonwealth, governed by a feudal nobility, with a phantom ſtiled King at its head; and that of Rome elective yet abſolute, its monarch, named the Pope, holding at once the ſecular and ſpiritual juriſdiction. The kings of Portugal, Spain, Sardinia, Naples, Pruſſia, Denmark, and Sweden, ſucceed by inheritance, and govern with abſolute ſway. The former is the caſe in France, and the latter was alſo until the preſent revolution, which, when completed, will moſt probably fix a limited monarchy in that kingdom.

But in the abſolute monarchies of Europe, as well as in the limited, and in commonwealths of the ſame denomination, the forms of adminiſtration, and the opinions and maxims, are ſo different, that ſcarcely any two can be found exactly ſimilar. In the ſovereignties of this portion of the Globe,

Globe, which are claſſed under the appellation of unlimited, is to be found, if we except Turkey, and perhaps Ruſſia, a greater or leſs tincture of ariſtocracy, and ſome kind of limitation to the will of the monarch in the ideas of the people; between the prince and the reſt of his ſubjects a body of hereditary nobility being placed, as an intermediate order, who, however in ſubjection to the former, domineer over the latter, and are not in general to be openly violated in their perſons or properties with ſafety, without ſome forms of law and ſome ſemblance of juſtice.

Of Aſia. Ruſſia and Turkey, though forming a part of the European ſyſtem, are Aſiatic in the genius of their government, and the greater part of their territorial poſſeſſions. In Ruſſia, whoſe dominion extends over all the immenſe regions of northern Aſia, from the Uralian Chain to the Pacific Ocean, the nobility, though exerciſing a deſpotiſm over the peaſants, are little better than ſlaves with reſpect to the monarch, and have but little pre-eminence of rank, excepting ſo far as they are dignified with offices under the crown. The policy of the Turkiſh empire, the Aſiatic portion of which ſtretches from the Black to the Red Sea, admits no order whatſoever of hereditary nobles, but depreſſes all to an abject level far beneath the glories of the ſovereign, who rules in the true deſpotiſm of the Eaſt; all the ſecular dignities of his empire being called into exiſtence ſolely by his favour, and expiring at the diſcontinuance of it. "It is the diſtinguiſhing and odious characteriſtic of the

eaſtern deſpotiſm, that it annihilates all other ranks of men, in order to exalt the monarch; that it leaves nothing to the former, while it gives every thing to the latter; that it endeavours to fix in the minds of thoſe who are ſubject to it, the idea of no relation between men, but that of a maſter and of a ſlave, the former deſtined to command and to puniſh, the latter formed to tremble and to obey ‖."

An hereditary deſpotiſm of this nature, but varying in forms and circumſtances, has been always found to prevail in the great monarchies of Aſia, whatever changes they have undergone by domeſtic revolutions and foreign conqueſts, which are there comparatively frequent, great and ſudden; no general policy, like that of Europe, ſubſiſting among the Aſiatic ſtates, and very few of them having a properly eſtabliſhed internal force, or a well regulated ſyſtem of adminiſtration. Among the monarchies entirely Aſiatic are the three vaſt empires of China, Hindoſtan, and Perſia; of which the firſt is by far the greateſt of all. A mighty inſular ſtate of Aſia, that of Japan, is alſo commonly ſtiled an empire, but might as well be called a kingdom. The other conſiderable kingdoms of Aſia are chiefly to be found in the regions of India, particularly beyond the Ganges, of which thoſe of Ava and Siam ſeem to be the greateſt.

But Aſia is by no means confined to one ſpecies of monarchy. In this vaſt and early inhabited por-

‖ Introduction to Robertſon's Hiſtory of Charles the Fifth.

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tion of the earth is a great variety of modifications, which cannot be all here particularized. In Arabia are princes, particularly the xeriff of Mecca, who, like the califfs, of whom they affect to be the ſucceſſors, are at once temporal kings of the country, and high-prieſts of the Mohammedan religion. The kingdom of Tibet affords a parallel to the Roman Popedom; its monarch, ſtiled the Dalai Lama, elected in a peculiar manner, exerciſing the functions of ſecular prince, and ſupreme pontiff of the Pagan ſuperſtition, which is profeſſed by the nations around. Among the Marattas of Hindoſtan, ſeveral other Indian people of the continent, and in the tropical iſlands of the Indian and Pacific Oceans, monarchy is more or leſs controuled by feudal ariſtocracy. In the nations of Tartary of the Mogul race, moſt of whom dwell in portable tents, and ſubſiſt by paſturage, the government is hereditary monarchy, and nearly abſolute; but the arrangements are feudal and quite military. In the tribes of Tartar deſcent inhabiting the ſame country, whether fixed or nomadic, whether independent, or tributary to Ruſſia or China, which two vaſt empires divide between them by far the greater part of this immenſe region, the monarchies are limited and elective, but the election is confined to the moſt illuſtrious family. A ſimilar mode obtains among the paſtoral tribes of Arabian anceſtry, who wander in the vaſt deſerts of Arabia and northern Africa; the chief of a clan being depoſed with little ceremony, when he becomes diſagree-

able

able to his ſubjects, but another of the ſame family elected to ſupply his place *.

Africa contains no powerful empires. The two greateſt monarchies, which in modern times have been known to Europeans in this immenſe peninſula, were thoſe of Morocco and Abyſſinia; both denominated empires, though they merit not by their magnitude this magnificent title; both deſcending by inheritance, and both arbitrary, excepting that in the latter, a feudal nobility often forcibly oppoſe the will of the ſovereign. The famous kingdom of Egypt, together with ſome territories to the ſouth on the coaſt of the Red Sea, and Barca and Tripoli to the weſt, pays tribute and an imperfect obedience to the Ottoman Sultan. To the ſame is acknowledged a merely nominal ſubjection by the ſtates of Tunis and Algiers, each of which is in the hands of Turkiſh pirates who infeſt the Mediterranean, and each a kind of military ariſtocracy, the former inclines of late to an hereditary monarchy. The eaſtern coaſt from Brava to Sofala, and the weſtern from the river Zara to Cape Negro, are bridled by fortreſſes of the Portugueſe, who awe the princes of theſe countries, and have great numbers of the natives under their dominion. Fortifications for the protection of trade, but without any conſiderable territorial property, are poſſeſſed by other Europeans, as the Of Africa.

* I purpoſely avoid crowding this general view with quotations, as the authorities will come in much better in the courſe of the work, in the deſcriptions of the particular countries.

Britiſh

Britiſh, Dutch, and French, on the coaſts of Guinea and Nigritia, and on the banks of the great rivers which interſect the latter country. The Cape of Good Hope, with the land for an extent of about 400 miles to the north, is very thinly colonized by the Dutch, to whoſe commonwealth it belongs. Concerning the governments which may ſubſiſt in the vaſt interior African regions, which are totally unknown, no other account can be given than a probable conjecture, that they reſemble thoſe which are known to prevail in the parts which have been viſited. Theſe are monarchies, ſome of greater, but moſt of extremely ſmall extent; ſome elective, and others hereditary in more than one form. In Congo, and ſome other kingdoms, the inheritance deſcends in the male line by the female ſide; that is, the deceaſed king is ſucceeded by the eldeſt ſon of his eldeſt ſiſter. The monarchies are moſtly of an arbitrary nature, but among the nomadic people, both of the north and ſouth, the authority of the chiefs is little more than an imperfect kind of parental reverence. As to the African iſlands, the Canaries belong to Spain: the Azores, which are as much European as African, the Maderas, the iſles of Cape Verde, and thoſe of Guinea-Bite, to Portugal: Saint Helena to Britain: the Maſcarenas, with ſome ſmall fortreſſes on the vaſt iſland of Madagaſcar, to the French; and the reſt to the natives.

Of America. In all the continent and iſlands of the New World one only independent power has as yet come into being,

being, that of the Thirteen United States, or revolted Britiſh colonies of North America, which is a cloſe union, under one ſupreme magiſtrate, of ſo many commonwealths, whoſe government is democratical. All other parts are either under the dominion of European nations who have ſent colonies to thoſe regions, or remain in the hands of ſmall and very thinly ſcattered tribes of aboriginal ſavages; excepting ſome tracts, particularly iſlands, which are deſtitute of human habitations. Britain, ſince the ſeceſſion of her other colonies, retains poſſeſſion of Canada, Nova Scotia, and the dreary coaſts of Hudſon's Bay; but the laſt are uncolonized and unviſited, excepting by men engaged in the trade of peltry, for whoſe accommodation buildings denominated forts† have been erected in ſix different places. Of all European powers, to Spain belong by far the moſt ample territories in both peninſulas of the New Continent; as it poſſeſſes in the northern the countries of Eaſt and Weſt Florida, Louiſiana, New Mexico, New Navarre, California, Cinaloa, Sonora, and Old Mexico; and in the ſouthern Terra Firma, including New Granada, Peru, Chili, and Paraguay; the laſt named including La Plata and Tucuman. The Spaniards alſo hold a ſmall part of Guiana, in which are ſome other European colonies of the Dutch, French, and Portugueſe; but the laſt have long ſubjected to their dominion the vaſt region of Brazil. The

† If they were fortifications, the French found them without garriſons in the late American war.

great

great Archipelago, called the Weſt Indian Iſlands, in the vicinity of the Mexican Gulph, belong to different nations of Europe, particularly the Spaniards, French, and Britons; of whom the laſt own, excluſively of this archipelago, the Bermudas, and moſt of Newfoundland, with ſome others of no great value.

All thoſe immenſe regions, which, in the northern peninſula of America, extend from the Britiſh and Spaniſh colonies to the Frozen Ocean and the Pacific; and thoſe, which, in the ſouthern, lie between the dominions of Spain and the Strait of Magalhaens, together with extenſive tracts within the limits of many of the countries aſſigned to European powers, are ſtill left in the poſſeſſion of independent clans of aboriginal people; the government of which clans is generally in appearance a kind of monarchy, moſtly elective, but in ſome caſes hereditary, and that even ſometimes in the male line by the female ſide as in Congo ‡. But all theſe chiefs have authority only to perſuade, not to command; liberty, in the fulleſt import of the term, being the portion of theſe ſavage tribes, among whom involuntary ſubordination is unknown, and all individuals of the community in a ſtate of perfect equality.

Religion. Religion and government have a mutual influence and cloſe connexion. As the latter has been

‡ See Carver's Travels in North America, (page 245, Dublin 1779.) in which, and in Robertſon's American Hiſtory, vol. i. the reader may fully ſatisfy himſelf with reſpect to the government of the American ſavages.

often

often exerted to inforce or modify the former, ſo the former has frequently proved a moſt efficacious engine to eſtabliſh the latter. Varied almoſt infinitely as the modes of faith and religious worſhip are, mankind may, in reſpect of this article, be reduced under four general heads or claſſes, to which may be given the denominations of Pagans, Jews, Chriſtians and Mohammedans.

Judaiſm. The Jews, extremely few in number, when compared to any of the other three religious denominations, form no where a nation in their preſent ſtate, but are a diſperſed people, thinly ſcattered throughout almoſt all the countries of Europe, moſt of weſtern Aſia, many of northern Africa, and in ſtill ſmaller numbers in ſome other parts of the globe; their mode of worſhip no where eſtabliſhed, and finding in but very few places a full, or perfectly unmoleſted toleration. It is hardly neceſſary to ſay that their religion conſiſts chiefly in the knowledge of the unity of the Divine Nature, and the expectation of the promiſed Meſſiah. They abhor every ſpecies of polytheiſm and idolatry; abſtain from the fleſh of ſwine, and other prohibited kinds of food; obſerve Saturday as their Sabbath, and make uſe of circumciſion as a neceſſary religious rite §.

Chriſtianity. The Meſſiah, whoſe arrival on earth the Jews are yet expecting, is known by the Chriſtians to have already come, and to be no other than Jeſus

§ Circumciſion, whether as a religious rite, or a matter of convenience, is uſed by great numbers of Pagan tribes, as the reader will find in the courſe of this work.

Chriſt.

Chriſt. This makes the original and chief difference between Judaiſm and Chriſtianity. The latter is profeſſed by the inhabitants of Europe, excepting the Turks and a few rude people in Ruſſia and Lapland; by great numbers of people under the Ottoman yoke both in Europe and Aſia; by many in Egypt, Abyſſinia, and the dominions of European powers in Aſia, Africa, and the New World.

Of the many ſects of Chriſtians the moſt numerous is that of the Romaniſts, called alſo Catholics, Roman Catholics, and Papiſts, who believe the Pope, who is the ſupreme head of their church, to be the ſucceſſor of Saint Peter, and the vicar, or viſible vicegerent of Chriſt on earth; while all others conſider this great eccleſiaſtic to be no more than Biſhop of Rome, and to have no right of pre-eminence over other prelates. Of this great ſect are all the inhabitants of the Italian, Spaniſh, and Portugueſe dominions, by far the majority of the ſubjects of the French monarchy, at leaſt half the people of the German ſtates, by much the greater part of the Poliſh nation, and many who live in countries where other modes of belief have the ſanction of government, particularly Ireland. The followers of the Greek religion, which is eſtabliſhed in the immenſe dominions of Ruſſia, and profeſſed by great numbers in the Turkiſh empire, and many in Poland, condemn the adoration which is paid by the Romaniſts to the images of ſaints or deceaſed men, yet admit their pictures in religious worſhip: Nor is celibacy extended to all orders of their

their clergy, as to thoſe of the Romaniſts: Celibacy, in the Greek church, is enjoined only on the monaſtic orders, in which the biſhops are included; the parochial clergy being even obliged to marry; yet if the wife of a clergyman dies, he cannot marry a ſecond time without becoming a layman; but, at the death of his firſt wife, he has his option to become a monk, and thereby put himſelf in the way of epiſcopal preferment.

From theſe two ſects, and many others, among which may be named the Neſtorians, and Armenians, the diſciples of the reformed Chriſtian religion differ in many points; particularly they reject all worſhip of deceaſed men, and confine adoration ſolely to God. But the profeſſors of the reformed religion are alſo ſplit into two chief ſects, named Lutherans and Calviniſts. The former conſider a ſubordination of clergy to be neceſſary, and have in their religious eſtabliſhments archbiſhops, biſhops, and other dignitaries; while among the latter no hierarchy is admitted, but all the miniſters of the goſpel are in a ſtate of equality, and the church of each country governed in the manner of a commonwealth, which makes a main difference between this and almoſt all other ſects of Chriſtianity. Lutheraniſm is eſtabliſhed in the Daniſh and Swediſh dominions, in a large proportion of Germany, and, with ſome alteration, in the Britiſh countries, excepting North-Britain, where Calviniſm is by law predominant, as it is alſo in the Dutch republic, ſome parts of Germany, and ſome of the Swiſſe commonwealths.

The

Moham-mediſm.

The Mohammedans or Mahometans, called alſo Moſlems or Muſſulmans, are probably leſs numerous than the Chriſtians, yet poſſeſs no inconſiderable portion of the globe, in which the moſt renowned nations of antiquity dwelt, and in which ſome of the moſt fertile regions are contained. In this claſs of religious perſuaſion are all the Turks, Arabs, and Perſians; many Tartar tribes; great numbers of people in the vaſt and rich country of Hindoſtan, in the iſlands of the Indian Ocean, and in Egypt; all the inhabitants of Barbary, and conſiderable numbers in parts of Africa ſtill farther to the ſouth, on the weſtern ſide as far as the river Senegal, and on the eaſtern much farther. The eſſential part of their creed is, that only one God exiſts, and that Mohammed is his prophet. They eſteem Jeſus Chriſt alſo as a prophet, but ſuppoſe his miſſion to have been unſucceſsful. They are indiſpenſably bound to pray, with their faces turned toward the temple of Mecca, or at leaſt toward the name of God written in their chambers, five times in twenty-four hours; at ſun-riſe, at noon, afternoon, in the evening, and in the firſt watch of the night; and are obliged to uſe luſtrations or purifications by waſhing themſelves with water, or, when that cannot be procured, by rubbing with ſand or earth. Friday is their day of public worſhip, when prayers are recited aloud in the moſques, or Mohammedan churches, by the imaums, who are a kind of pariſh miniſters; but they aſſume this office without any form of ordination, and are at liberty to relinquiſh it at pleaſure. Thoſe who

who may be called regular clergy, are the derviſhes, who are a ſort of monks.

The Coran *, which is, as it were, the Bible of the Moſlems, preſcribes alms for the relief not only of mankind, but of inferior animals alſo, and allots the tenth part of each man's revenue to that charitable purpoſe. A pilgrimage to the temple, or great moſque, of Mecca is recommended, not as an abſolutely neceſſary, but as an highly meritorious act, and thoſe who perform this religious journey are dignified with the title of Hadjee. A caravan, with about 50,000 pilgrims, aſſembled from the Turkiſh dominions, paſſes annually from Damaſcus to Mecca through the burning ſands of the Arabian deſerts. Theſe formidable ſolitudes are traverſed on another ſide by a vaſt caravan, which, collecting pilgrims from all the countries of Barbary, and even from the banks of the Senegal, takes its departure with its aſſembled multitude from Cairo in Egypt, and marches through the iſthmus of Suez to the conſecrated city; to which alſo great numbers of other religious viſitants reſort by ſea or in ſmaller caravans.

The Muſſulmans coincide with the Jews, not only with reſpect to the unity of the Deity, and the abhorrence of idolatry, but alſo in circumciſion and abſtinence from ſwine's fleſh; but they are moreover enjoined to abſtain from intoxicating liquors, and to obſerve ſo ſtrict a faſt during the

* The Coran is in Arabic emphatically the Book, juſt as Biblos in Greek.

month of Ramazan, as not to taſte any thing whatſoever while the ſun is above the horizon. This month, on account of the lunar year uſed by the Moſlems, is ſometimes in one ſeaſon, ſometimes in another. Quite contrary to the Chriſtian inſtitutions, they admit concubinage and polygamy, each man being allowed, beſide concubines, to have four wives: Nor is their marriage more than a looſe bargain, which can be eaſily diſſolved †.

Two chief ſects, mutually inimical, divide the Moſlems; the Sonnites or ſect of Omar, and the Shiites or ſect of Ali. The former acknowledge all the four, Abubeker, Omar, Othman, and Ali, who actually ſucceeded Mohammed in this order, to be his legitimate ſucceſſors, but ſuppoſe them to decreaſe in merit, as much as in diſtance from the prophet; while the latter, beſide a few other differences, believe Ali to be the true immediate ſucceſſor of Mohammed, and execrate the three former as uſurpers. The Shiites are leſs numerous than the Sonnites; their faith being embraced only by the Perſians, ſome of the Uſbec Tartars, ſome Moſlems of Hindoſtan, and a few ſmall parties elſewhere.

Paganiſm. All who cannot be arranged under any of the three heads above deſcribed, ſo as to bear the names of neither Jews, Chriſtians, nor Mohammedans, come under the general denomination of Pa-

† It is a vulgar error, which has ſometimes been aſſerted, that Mohammedans believe women to be without immortal ſouls.

gans

gans or Heathens, and form by far the moſt numerous claſs, a claſs which comprehends all the inhabitants of China and the iſlands of the Pacific Ocean, a great majority of thoſe who inhabit the immenſe region of Tartary, almoſt all the people of India beyond the Ganges, moſt of thoſe who dwell in the iſlands of the Indian Ocean, about ten parts out of eleven of the nations who occupy Hindoſtan, almoſt all the Africans beyond the river Senegal to the ſouth, and almoſt all the uncivilized tribes of the New Continent.

By Pagans are underſtood thoſe who are totally ignorant of the revealed word of God, with which even the Mohammedans are in part acquainted, and who conſequently have no knowledge of the Almighty, farther than what the mere light of Nature ſuggeſts. But ſo far is the uncultivated reaſon of unreflecting ſavages from the attainment of that elementary principle of religion, the knowledge of the exiſtence of the Creator, that many rude tribes of people ſeem not to have any idea of the Deity, have no name in their languages to expreſs any ſuch idea, and are as deſtitute of religion as of government, no form whatſoever of either the one or the other being viſible among them; yet all appear to have ſome confuſed notion of the ſoul's immortality. The above appears from the beſt information to be the condition of the Hottentots of ſouthern Africa, ſome tribes in the iſlands of the Indian Ocean, many rude clans of aboriginal Americans, and is, in all probability, the condition alſo of the ſavages of New Holland, and

ſome other little known countries. Some who have paſſed a few ſteps beyond this line of profound darkneſs, and conceived the exiſtence of ſuperintendent beings, are apt to imagine a plurality of Gods, to ſuppoſe them to be rather of a malevolent than beneficent nature, to pay them adoration rather from motives of terror than gratitude, to make bloody ſacrifices of ſlaughtered animals, and ſome to immolate even human victims, in order to appeaſe the wrath of theſe terrible divinities. The horrible cuſtom of ſacrificing men, as propitiatory offerings to the offended Gods, is well known to prevail at preſent in many parts of the Pacific Ocean, and to have been adopted by ſome of the aboriginal nations of America, who had made the moſt conſiderable advances towards improvement, as well as by the ancient Celtic people of Europe, and other barbarians of antiquity. Even in the moſt civilized countries of the Pagan world, as China and Japan, where political adminiſtration and public worſhip have been reduced to regular ſyſtems, the national religion, whatever may be the ideas of the thinking few, is polytheiſm and idolatry.

The Metempſychoſis.

Of the various opinions known at preſent to ſubſiſt among the Pagan nations, that of the Metempſychoſis or Tranſmigration of Souls appears to be the moſt worthy of notice. This doctrine prevails, in a greater or leſs degree, throughout the regions of India on both ſides of the Ganges, the Mogul nations of ſouthern Tartary, the empire of China, and the iſlands of Japan. Its followers are taught to believe, that the ſoul of every man paſſes immediately

diately at his death into the body of ſome animal, and at the deceaſe of that into ſome other; and thus, by ſucceſſive migrations, animates the bodies of various men ‡, and inferior animals, at various periods of time. It may have been the laudable deſign of the inventors of this doctrine, not only to exemplify the immortality of the ſoul, but alſo to mollify the ſanguinary diſpoſitions of men, and inſpire them with compaſſion toward the inferior animals; for he who adopts this opinion, is induced to ſuppoſe, not only that every animal is actuated by a ſoul ſimilar to his own, but even that the moſt diſguſting reptile, which he might otherwiſe be tempted to deſtroy, may poſſibly be poſſeſſed by the ſpirit of his father, or of ſome other departed kinſman. But this laudable compaſſion is, by ſome people of India, carried to a vicious extreme; for they ſuffer themſelves to be almoſt devoured by vermin rather than deprive any animal of life. Of thoſe who admit the Metempſychoſis, the ſupreme head, with reſpect to religion, is the Dalai Lama, or prince of Tibet, who bears, in ſome circumſtances, a ſtriking reſemblance to the Roman pontiff §. This monarch is believed to be a divine perſonage, infallible and immortal. It is indeed acknowledged that his body dies; but then it is believed that his ſoul, or divine eſſence, animates, by immedi-

‡ Thus Pythagoras, who imported this doctrine from India into Greece, aſſerted that his ſoul was the very ſame with that of Euphorbas, who, by Homer's account, had been killed by Menelaus, ſome centuries before in the Trojan war.

§ See hereafter my account of Tartary and Tibet.

ate

ate tranſmigration, the body of his ſucceſſor. His reſidence is a vaſt palace on the mountain Pateli, or Potala, near the Barrompooter. Here is beheld the terreſtrial divinity clothed in yellow robes, and ſitting croſs-legged on an altar, whence he confers remiſſion of ſins, and diſtributes bleſſings among ſuch as are permitted to approach him.

Government and religion ſo powerfully influence the manners of men, and have ſo intimate and inſeparable a connexion with them, that theſe appear naturally to claim the next place in this treatiſe. But as in ſo very ſhort an account as this general view, I cannot pretend to trace this connexion, but only to make ſome general remarks, beſides that ſome cuſtoms are to be noticed, which ſeem to have little or no dependence on political or religious inſtitutions, I ſhall previouſly proceed to treat of the number, diſtribution, and varieties of the human race.

SECTION THE EIGHTH.

NUMBER OF PEOPLE ON THE GLOBE—THEIR DISTRIBUTION—IN THE OLD CONTINENT—IN THE NEW CONTINENT—IN THE ISLANDS.

TO calculate, in any degree approaching to exactneſs, the whole number of people, who now ſubſiſt, or at any one time ſubſiſted, on the earth, is an abſolute impoſſibility; as muſt evidently be ſeen by any reflecting perſon, who conſiders how great a proportion of our globe is imperfectly or not at all known, and how difficult it is to number with preciſion the inhabitants of any one even well known and civilized country, where both the civil and eccleſiaſtical arrangements are ſuch, as furniſh the beſt aſſiſtance to the calculator. A rational conjecture is the utmoſt which, in this caſe, can be expected or performed; and, from a due attention to ſuch circumſtances as are known, it ſeems highly probable, that the total number of the human race can hardly be ſo ſmall as 500 millions, nor greatly exceed 700, if it even amounts to ſo much. In this uncertain computation, very uncertain as it muſt inevitably be, above 140 millions are, on good grounds, aſſigned to Europe; from 280 to 400, with more vague conjecture, to Aſia; about 100, with

Number of people on the globe.

with the greateſt uncertainty, to Africa; between 20 and 40 to the New Continent; and about 30 millions, with like diffidence, to the iſlands of the Pacific, Indian, and Atlantic Oceans, excluſively of thoſe, whoſe inhabitants conſtitute a part of the great political ſyſtem of Europe ‖.

Their diſtribution.

This multitude of human beings, immenſe, we muſt acknowledge, yet probably not a fifth of what the earth, with proper culture, might eaſily maintain, and may yet ſupport at ſome future period, is diſtributed over the ſurface of the globe in the moſt inequable manner; ſome parts being very populous, others very thinly inhabited, and others quite deſolate, or but occaſionally viſited by wandering clans. In Europe, where no vaſt tracts of irreclaimable deſert, excepting the frozen regions in its northern extremity, are to be found, where the inhabitants depend on agriculture for their main ſupport, and where, by the mild influence of Chriſtianity and literature, deſolation is not, as elſewhere, the conſtant attendant of war, the number of people, though not half of what it

In the Old Continent.

‖ In a certain publication the number of mankind is eſtimated, with a confidence proportioned to the ignorance of the compiler, at 953 millions; 153 being allotted to Europe, 500 to Aſia, 150 to Africa, and 150 to America. How 500 millions are to be found in Aſia I know not, unleſs 300 of them are contained in China, as ſome have actually aſſerted. The 150 aſcribed to Africa ſeems too much, as the reader may be perhaps induced to think, from the account, which I here give of the diſtribution of the people; and as to the 150 attributed to America, I cannot heſitate to pronounce it an egregious error.

might

might be, is comparatively great, and their diſtribution leſs uneven than in the other great diviſions of the earth; though its various parts differ greatly in population; its eaſtern and northern particularly being much more thinly inhabited than the reſt.

The ſouthern ſlope of Aſia, which ſhelves toward the equator from the huge Alps of Tibet, and other mountains of that vaſt ſyſtem, being highly favoured by nature, and inhabited by a people of moſtly gentle manners from the nature of their religious inſtitutions, and drawing their whole ſubſiſtence from agriculture, is remarkably populous, but not equally ſo in all its parts; for, of the three vaſt regions of which this ſlope conſiſts, China, Tranſgangene India, and Hindoſtan, the laſt is leſs thickly inhabited than the firſt, and the ſecond in a ſtill ſmaller degree ſtocked with people, ſome tracts appearing to be quite waſte by the cruelty of deſpotiſm and the devaſtations of war. Directly contrary to the condition of this fine ſouthern declivity of Aſia, is that of the vaſt highlands which lie on its northern ſide, and all the northern ſlope of the continent thence to the Frozen Ocean; all which, with ſome other tracts, conſtitute the enormous extent of Tartary, terminated weſtward by the Uralian mountains. This range of prodigious dimenſions, comprehending more than half of Aſia, is, excepting ſome ſpots which bear but ſmall proportion to the whole, one immenſe uncultivated waſte, very thinly inhabited by erratic tribes, who are moſtly of a predatory, often of a mutually hoſtile

tile diſpoſition, deſpiſe agriculture, dwell in moving camps, and depend for ſubſiſtence on their herds of cattle, or what animals they can procure by the chace or fiſhery. The northern tracts of this great waſte, where the two latter occupations are almoſt the ſole ſupport of life, have ſo ſlender a ſtock of people, as to be nearly deſolate. The vaſt region, which, extending from Hindoſtan to the Helleſpont, contains the empire of Perſia and Aſiatic Turkey, has neither ſuch a population as the ſouthern, nor ſuch a paucity of inhabitants as the northern ſlope of Aſia.

Beſide extenſive deſerts of ſand in Perſia and ſouthern Tartary, alſo vaſt plains in the latter, which, from a want of moiſture, are uninhabitable, though otherwiſe good land, Nature hath condemned to irremediable ſterility and ſcanty population an immenſe ſpace, which ſtretches quite from the Perſian Gulph to the Atlantic Ocean, and comprehends, together with the vaſt Aſiatic region of Arabia, a great proportion of the immenſe African peninſula, expanding from the northern tropic on both ſides, ſo as on one hand to border the Mediterranean on the weſt of Egypt, and on the other to advance far, how far we know not, but probably a vaſt way, within the torrid zone. So vaſt a portion of the Old Continent is, admitting a few exceptions, one enormous ſandy deſert, through which the traveller is guided by the compaſs as in the ocean; where the eye meets no variety but ſome rocks, or precipitous hills, aduſt and barren, or ſand-banks fortuitouſly collected by the winds; where

where wells are extremely ſcarce, hardly any rivers flow, and rain ſeldom falls to moiſten the thirſty ground, on the north of the tropic not a ſhower being ſeen for years together, where the fervid heat, reflected from vaſt expanſes of ſhining ſand, while the ſun blazes in a cloudleſs ſky which appears all fiery, enflames the air in a dreadful manner, and cauſes the hot burning winds, which ſometimes ſweep over theſe torrid tracts, and too often carry with them ſuffocation and death; and where high winds from any quarter, which, we muſt own, ſeldom ariſe, drive the light ſands like the waves of a ſea, ſo as to have overwhelmed in deſtruction not only caravans, but even whole armies *.

* Thus Cambyſes the Perſian monarch, who conquered Egypt, loſt great part of his army in the neighbouring ſands. A perſon may form ſome conception of the vaſtneſs of the African deſerts, when he is told, that though Egypt advances 500 miles through them, yet ſtill, Savary informs us (Letters on Egypt) the caravans have a journey of ſeven days from the ſouthern extremity of that country through the ſands to the neareſt inhabited part of Nubia; and that the caravans, who travel from Barbary to Nigritia, find water, and that of a very bad kind, in only two places, in a journey of near 600 miles, in all which way nothing but ſand is to be ſeen.

So where our wide Numidian waſtes extend,
Sudden th' impetuous hurricanes deſcend,
Wheel through the air, in circling eddies play,
Tear up the ſands, and ſweep whole plains away.
The helpleſs traveller, with wild ſurprize,
Sees the dry deſert all around him riſe,
And ſmothered in the duſty whirlwind dies.

Addiſon's Tragedy of Cato.

Yet

Yet amidſt the ſun-burnt rocks and glowing ſands of theſe formidable deſerts, many ſcattered ſpots are found, where Nature, with penurious hand, yields water and ſome ſtunted vegetables for the goats, and camels of ſmall wandering clans, who roam through theſe vaſt ſultry waſtes. Some ſmall tracts are even ſaid to be bleſſed with fertility, which riſe amid the ſands as iſlands in the ocean. Such are the ſpots, called Oaſes, to the weſt of Egypt, in one of which was, in times of antiquity, the famous temple of Jupiter Ammon. But ſome tracts of much more conſiderable extent are environed by the deſerts, the chief of which is the fine country of Yemen in South Arabia.

In Africa, northward of the vaſt region of ſand above deſcribed, is a maritime tract of great length, but narrow in proportion, which comprehends the ſtates of Morocco, Algiers, and Tunis, ſhelving from the chain of the great Atlas toward the Mediterranean, and happy in a fertile ſoil, but unhappy in a cruel government, which cauſes it to be but thinly inhabited by a partly agricultural and partly paſtoral people. Between Tunis and Egypt are the ſands of Tripoli and Barca, part of the immenſe deſert. Of all known parts of Africa by far the moſt populous is the inhabited tract of Egypt, which is however but a very narrow ſtripe, occupying only the banks of the Nile, and a triangular territory interſected by the effluent branches of that moſt celebrated river. To the ſouth of the immenſe deſert, the weſtern coaſt, from the Senegal to a little beyond the Coanza, is, though moſtly fertile, yet collectively

collectively viewed, but ſcantily furniſhed with people, who practiſe a moſt limited and wretched mode of cultivation. Hence, ſtill ſouthward to the land of the Hottentots, the maritime tracts are almoſt all a deſert, particularly beyond Cape Negro. The paucity of inhabitants is yet greater in the eaſtern coaſts of this immenſe peninſula, great part of which, particularly thoſe which border the Red Sea, are no better than a waſte of rocks and ſand. The country of the Hottentots and Caffers, which forms the ſouthern extremity of Africa, is, excepting the Dutch plantations, an uncultivated, though not a barren, deſert, in which a few roving tribes, who ſubſiſt by paſturage and the chace, are far from making a numerous population. Concerning the interior parts, which are unknown, we can only conjecture that they are not more copiouſly furniſhed with inhabitants than the coaſts, as the Romiſh miſſionaries, who have penetrated fartheſt into this wretched portion of the globe, have, ſo far as they were able to proceed, found the caſe to be †.

† So ſays Monſieur Le Poivre (Travels of a Philoſopher) and other intelligent travellers; but the credulous compilers of the Modern Univerſal Hiſtory, a work doubtleſs of great utility, when read with caution, have implicitly admitted the extravagant and inconſiſtent accounts of the Portugueſe and other writers, who have aſcribed a very numerous population to parts of Africa, which, from their own deſcriptions, are uncultivated and waſte; and have dignified with the title of Emperor Chieftains, whoſe dominions exceeded not ſmall Britiſh counties in ſize. Conducted by ſuch guides theſe compilers have rated the inhabitants of Java in the Indian Ocean at 30 millions; a monſtrous abſurdity, as I ſhall have occaſion to ſhew in treating of Java.

But

In the New Continent.

But Africa, with all its deſerts, is, in point of population, far ſuperior to the New Continent, where, excepting ſome tracts, and theſe not populous, poſſeſſed by European coloniſts, or by aboriginal people under their influence, nature, unaſſiſted by the hand of induſtry, exhibits no other than a ſcene of primeval deſolation, the only inhabitants being very ſmall and very thinly diſperſed tribes of roving ſavages, who depend for ſubſiſtence, neither on agriculture nor paſturage, but on the chace, a mode of life, which above all others, requires the greateſt range of territory for the ſuſtenance of any given number of men. In South America, thoſe parts which are more immediately under European government, and are to be conſidered as exceptions from the general ſtate of ſolitude, are the long and narrow tracts which extend northward from the iſland of Chiloe, between the ſummits of the Andes and the Pacific Ocean, to the iſthmus of Darien; ſome territories on the coaſts of the Atlantic between the ſame iſthmus and the river La Plata; ſome ſpaces on the banks of the great rivers, and a few in the interior parts where rich mines are found. The reſt of this immenſe peninſula is a waſte of vaſt, and moſtly impervious, foreſts; widely extended ſwamps or marſhes of ſtagnant water; or plains covered with rank vegetation, which rots on the ſurface, and gradually deepens the ſoil which gives it birth. So few are the inhabitants of theſe wild regions, that the moſt fertile of them, within the torrid zone, have been found to be peopled, in compariſon of the populous countries of Europe of the

the ſame extent, only in the proportion of one to a thouſand ‡. The deſolation is much greater in the barren deſerts which ſtretch ſouthward to the ſtrait of Magalhaens, and the immenſe northern peninſula of this continent. Mexico, or New Spain, is in compariſon of many American regions, a populous country; and the tracts which extend from the ſummits of the Apalachian Mountains to the Atlantic, poſſeſſed by the independent Britiſh colonies, are better cultivated and more occupied by European deſcendants, than any other region of America. But, excepting theſe countries, and ſome ſettlements as yet inconſiderable, on the weſt of the Apalachian chain, in the vicinity of the Vermilion Sea, on the banks of the Miſſiſſippi and Saint Lawrence, and a few other tracts, all the immenſe peninſula of North America, however highly favoured by Nature its ſouthern parts may be, is one continued wilderneſs of pathleſs woods, ſwamps, and lakes, through which a few hardy ſavages roam in queſt of prey. Their numbers are found to diminiſh in approaching the Arctic circle, as the face of things, from the encreaſing rigours of the climate, gradually wears a more ſavage and horrid aſpect; until at length no ſuſtenance can be procured for man, and the land becomes completely uninhabited.

‡ Thus (Voyages des Marchais) 25,000 inhabitants only were found to be contained in Guiana, a country of even luxuriant fertility, and equal in ſize to the European kingdom of France, in which the number of people falls very little, if at all, ſhort of 25 millions.

In

In the islands.

In the islands of the globe, taken in one general view, the population is at least as unevenly dispos-ed as in the continents; many being totally deso-late, and others almost swarming with inhabitants. Many of a mountainous nature, particularly within the tropics and in the Pacific Ocean, are desert in the interior parts, and populous in the coasts. No tropical islands of considerable magnitude in the Indian Ocean are entirely destitute of people, nor in the Pacific, so far as navigators have explored, excepting the Gallipagos and a very few others; but some are in the Atlantic, as most of the Ba-hamas, whose inhabitants have been exterminated by Spanish cruelty. In the torrid zone, and the warm climates without it, are many very populous islands, as those of Japan, with a few others in the Pacific, and some of the West Indian isles, parti-cularly Barbadoes in the Atlantic; but in high la-titudes many are quite without inhabitants, as Nova Zembla and the isles of Spitsberg in the northern hemisphere; and in the southern, the Isle of Deso-lation, those of Terra del Fuego, the Isle of Sou-thern Georgia, and Sandwich Land.

SECTION THE NINTH.

VARIETIES OF MANKIND—THE ARCTIC TRIBES—THE MONGOL RACE—THE GENTOOS—THE EUROPEANS—THE NEGROS—THE AMERICANS—MANNERS—THE LOWEST CLASS OF MANKIND—THE SECOND AND THIRD CLASSES—THE NOMADES—THE FOURTH CLASS—THE ORIENTALS—MODES OF BUILDING—THE FIFTH CLASS—THE EUROPEANS.

THE varieties of mankind, whoſe diſtribution I have endeavoured to deſcribe, as far as my information, and the very limited nature of this work would admit, have been variouſly ſtated by different writers of natural hiſtory §. Some diverſities of the human aſpect are ſo great and ſtriking as to force themſelves on the obſervation; but the intermediate gradations or ſhades vary by imperceptible differences, and very probably no man can juſtly boaſt ſo ample a ſtock of materials, reſpecting this ſubject, as could enable him to diſcriminate every where with truth and preciſion. I ſhall attempt nothing farther in this buſineſs than to draw a few inferences from a collective view of all the particular caſes, which have come within the compaſs of

Varieties of mankind.

§ Linné, Buffon, &c.

my reſearch; without being influenced by the opinions of ſyſtematic writers, however great their abilities and reputation, who bend the pliant, overleap the ſtubborn facts, which militate againſt their ſyſtems, and ſubſtitute their own imaginations where facts are wanting.

The Arctic tribes.

In the moſt northern inhabited regions of both continents, within the Arctic zone and in its vicinity, dwell many ſmall erratic tribes, who, however different in origin and ſome perſonal traits, have in ſeveral circumſtances a general conformity. Their ſtature is diminutive, ſeldom riſing above the height of five feet, but as ſeldom depreſſed ſo low as four: Their colour inclined to fairneſs, but rendered yellow by the climate and manner of living: The face and body either quite deſtitute of hair, or very ſcantily furniſhed with it; it being the cuſtom with moſt of them to eradicate the little which Nature beſtows on theſe parts, particularly the face; but that of the head is long ſtrait and black: The head large: The face of a roundiſh form, broad and ſomewhat flat: The eyes black, but languid, and little in proportion to the viſage; and their temperament rather phlegmatic and dull. In this, very far from numerous, claſs may be ranked the Greenlanders and Eſkeemos of the New Continent, who, from their language and other characteriſtics, appear to be of the ſame origin; and the Samoyedes, with ſome other tribes, of the old, who ſeem to have a quite different deſcent. But the Laplanders, though they dwell within the Arctic circle, may, together with ſome of the people of northern Siberia,

Siberia, be conſidered as of an intermediate nature between this and ſome other claſſes of mankind ||. When we enquire into the conſtitutional qualities of the Arctic nations, we find, that among thoſe of the Old Continent, including the Laplanders, and moſt of the northern Siberians, an exceſſive weakneſs of the nervous ſyſtem prevails; eſpecially in the females, who are apt to fall into fainting fits, or paroxyſms of terror, at occurrences, which would have but little effect on others, ſuch as the ſudden falling of a ſpark of fire toward them, or the unexpected ſight of an uncommon object. I know not whether this irritability of nerves be common alſo to the Eſkeemos and Greenlanders. It is obſerved that, among the Arctic tribes in general in both continents, females are delivered of their children with comparatively very little pain or confinement, and that among the Samoyedes a very early in-

|| Buffon has ſuppoſed the Laplanders and all the Arctic tribes to be of one race, and has given them, beſide the characteriſtics here aſſigned, a flat noſe, a large mouth, thick and reflected lips, &c. But it appears (Crantz's Hiſtory of Greenland, book iii. chap. 1. ſect. 1.) that in the Greenlanders the noſe is not flat, and that the mouth is commonly ſmall; that the Laplanders (Tooke's Ruſſia, vol. i. page 7. London 1780.) are of a middling ſtature, with dark grey eyes and brown hair, and differ nothing in externals from the Finlanders (idem vol. 1. page 37); and that (idem vol. 3. page 11.) though the Samoyedes have large mouths, yet their lips are ſmall, by which muſt be underſtood thin. I wiſh to avoid quotations in this part of the work, as they will be brought afterwards to prove the particular caſes; but when I differ from ſo celebrated a writer as the Count Buffon, it is neceſſary to produce my authorities.

tercourſe of the ſexes takes place, inſomuch that many of the women are mothers at the age of twelve; yet this premature connexion, and the facility of parturition, have been ſuppoſed peculiar to the inhabitants of hot climates.

The Mongol race.

That which may be called the Mongol race inhabits great part of ſouthern Tartary, and, with ſeveral variations of complexion and features, all China, the iſlands of Japan, moſt of the regions of Tranſgangene India, eſpecially on the eaſtern ſide, and many territories in the iſlands of the Indian Ocean, particularly Java. The extreme perſonal characteriſtics of this vaſt claſs of mankind are marked in the Mongol nations of ſouthern Tartary, eſpecially the Calmucs. Theſe are generally of a middling ſtature, a robuſt and ſtout frame of body; a reddiſh brown, but often naturally a fair, complexion; a ſcanty beard, which alſo appears late; long, ſtrait, and black hair on the head; a broad and extremely flat face; very large and prominent ears; ſmall eyes flatted at the corners; a ſhort chin, thick lips, and a ſmall noſe. The Chineſe and Japaneſe bear a near reſemblance to this portrait; their complexion naturally quite fair; the eyes ſmall, oblong, dark coloured, and ſunk; the noſe ſhort, but not flat; the eye-brows high, and the hair black *. The deviations are greater in Tranſgangene India, particularly in the complexion,

* How could Buffon, and his copier Goldſmith, ſay, that the Japaneſe are of a darker colour than the Chineſe, becauſe they live in a more ſouthern climate; when a ſingle glance at the map of Aſia ſhews the contrary?

which

which is tawney. The ears of ſome of theſe Indian people, particularly in Laos, and ſome of the iſlands, are rendered ſo long by art as to touch the ſhoulders. Thoſe, who inhabit the eaſtern coaſts of the bay of Bengal, ſeem to form an intermediate ſhade between the Mongol race and the Gentoos of Hindoſtan; as ſome tribes in Siberia, between the ſame race and the diminutive people of the Arctic regions.

The Gentoos, who inhabit the vaſt country of Hindoſtan, with ſome tracts in the iſlands of the Indian Ocean, as, for inſtance, Bally and Lomboc, differ little from the Europeans in the contour of the face and ſhape of the body, but vaſtly in colour, their complexion varying from a jetty black to an olive hue. The latter prevails within the main continent, the former in the peninſula. The eyes are quite black. The hair alſo is black, ſtrait, and long. The body commonly leſs robuſt than in the people of Europe†. The tribes, who ſeem to conſtitute the chief gradations from the Gentoos to the Europeans, are thoſe who inhabit the vaſt country of Perſia, and all the Arab race, who not only dwell in Arabia, but are found ſcattered, and often mixed with other tribes, throughout all the north of Africa, from the coaſt of Barbary to the The Gentoos.

† Naturaliſts have ſuppoſed the Gentoos to be a people of ſo cowardly a ſpirit, as to be incapable of becoming ſoldiers; but the contrary has appeared in the late wars of India, the black troops, in the ſervice of the Britiſh Eaſt India Company, behaving with as much courage as Europeans, and defeating the veteran troops of France in cloſe fight with the bayonet.

vicinity

vicinity of the Senegal, and ſtill farther to the ſouth in the eaſtern ſide of this immenſe peninſula, including the Abyſſinians, who from colour and conformation appear to be of the ſame origin. All theſe nations have a general reſemblance to the Gentoos and Europeans in make and features, with long, black and ſtrait hair, black eyes, and a ſwarthy complexion varying in ſhade. Of a like intermediate kind appear to be the people who inhabit many tropical and ſouthern iſlands of the Pacific Ocean, as the Sandwich iſles, Otaheitee, New Zealand, and many others. Their colour is of various ſhades, from a mahogany brown to a bright olive or brunette. In form of body, hair, and features, they are not very different from Europeans, excepting a roundneſs at the tip of the noſe; which is ſuppoſed not to be natural, but the effect of a peculiar cuſtom, the mode of ſalutation, between two perſons, being to meet in ſuch manner, as to preſs the tips of their noſes together. This race of men, from their language and lineaments, ſeem to be indigenous in many iſlands of the Indian Ocean. —They alſo ſeem, in moſt caſes, to form a conſiderable ingredient in the compoſition of the people called Malays, whoſe tribes moſtly engaged in commerce or piracy, are found in the peninſula of Malacca, and on the coaſts of ſo many iſlands of the Indian Ocean, that all incluſively, from the weſtern coaſts of Sumatra to the eaſtern of the Moluccas and Philippines, are called Malay countries. Excepting ſome clans of the Negro or Hottentot kind, and ſome colonies of a recent date, the inhabitants

of

of this populous tract of ocean, including the Malays, notwithſtanding ſome perſonal diſtinctions and a diverſity of origin, ſome being more blended with the Chineſe race, others with the Arabs, and others with the indigenous people, have yet a general ſimilitude, particularly in the blackneſs of the eyes and hair, the olive hue of the ſkin, and the want of a beard, it being cuſtomary to eradicate the hair, at leaſt, of the face, but often alſo of every part except the head.

The Europeans.

In the numerous claſs of Europeans are to be ranked not only almoſt all the inhabitants of Europe, but alſo many Tartar tribes in the ſouth-weſt of Tartary ‡, the Circaſſians, Georgians, and other borderers of Mount Caucaſus, the people of Anatolia and moſt other Turkiſh provinces, many of the inhabitants of Egypt and Barbary, and the deſcendants of coloniſts who have emigrated from Europe to different parts of the globe, particularly the New World. The Europeans in general have a more oval and prominent face than the nations of the Mongol claſs, and what at leaſt we account a more regular and handſome ſymmetry of features, a fair complexion, where it is not tarniſhed by external or accidental cauſes, and hair neither uniform in colour nor conſiſtence, it being moſtly

‡ The Compte de Buffon has conſidered the Tartars and the Calmucs in one claſs, but the Tartar nations are totally different from the Calmucs and others of the Mongol kind, (ſee Tooke's Ruſſia, vol. ii. p. 5. London 1780, and vol. iv. p. 5.) and ſeem from their deſcription to belong rather to the Europeans. See Tooke, vol. ii. p. 22.

ſtrait,

ſtrait, but often alſo more or leſs curled. Nature has beſtowed an extraordinary whiteneſs of ſkin, with light-grey eyes, and brown, flaxen, or reddiſh hair, on great part of the northern Europeans, particularly of thoſe who are ſuppoſed to be of the Teutonic or ancient German anceſtry, as the greater number of the people of Germany, Scandinavia, Britain, and many provinces of the Netherlands. The females of theſe nations excel in beauty their ſouthern neighbours, at leaſt in the beauty of forms, features, and colour, and furniſh finer models to the painter. The Saxons of Germany and the Engliſh are particularly remarkable for whiteneſs of complexion, and are probably not ſurpaſſed in this reſpect by any people. The Circaſſians and ſome other Caucaſian tribes appear to reſemble the northern inhabitants of Europe, as they are ſaid to be poſſeſſed of fine complexions, and hair of a flaxen or reddiſh caſt §. The northern people of Europe, as the Dutch, north Germans, and Poles, are, collectively conſidered, more corpulent and fleſhy than the ſouthern. The latter, as the Spaniards and Italians, are more muſcular and ſinewy, leſs fair complexioned, with dark or black ſparkling eyes, black hair, and a ſuperiority in that kind of

§ As in other inſtances Buffon ſeems to have been led rather by his imagination than by facts, in ſuppoſing the Circaſſians and French to have a ſtriking reſemblance to each other; the red or flaxen hair, ſo common among the Caucaſian people, (ſee Tooke's Ruſſia, vol. ii. p. 106 and 120. Alſo Volney's Travels in Egypt and Syria, page 59. Dublin edition) being far from predominant among the French.

beauty,

beauty, which conſiſts in gracefulneſs of motion and expreſſion of the countenance. In this gracefulneſs the French affect to ſurpaſs all others, and, with reſpect to colour, form a kind of medium between the whiteneſs of the Engliſh and the ſwarthineſs of the Spaniards.

To the Negro race are conſigned almoſt all the African regions to the ſouth of the Senegal, many territories in the Philippine Iſlands, almoſt all New Guinea, and ſeveral neighbouring tracts in the ſame ocean, particularly New Holland. This ſable and degraded part of mankind have alſo found their way into the iſlands and continent of the New World, whither they have been tranſported by the relentleſs and unfeeling avarice of Europeans. Black, ſoft, curling hair, of the conſiſtence of wool, and a duſky hue of the ſkin, varying in degree from a perfect black to a dark brown, are the univerſal characteriſtics of this claſs of men, to the majority of whom Nature has ſuperadded a peculiar deformity of face, the noſe being broad and flat, the lips thick and prominent. The Negros of this deſcription ſeem placed in direct oppoſition to the northern Europeans with ſnowy ſkins, long pendent hair of a flaxen hue, and fine regular features. Yet features of this kind are by no means denied to the whole race of Negros; ſuch as are well turned and handſome, according to the European ſtandard, being conferred on the Jaloffs of Nigritia and others, who with a complexion often black as jet, and ſuch lineaments, might be ranked with the Gentoo ſpecies, were not the woolly covering of

The Negroes.

of their heads a bar to that arrangement. The Negroes are obſerved to differ, not only in degree of blackneſs and contour of viſage, but alſo in the odours emitted from their ſkins; thoſe of Guinea exhaling from their bodies an unſavoury vapour, while no effluvia ſo ungrateful to the noſtrils proceeds from thoſe of Moſambic and Sofala. The Hottentots, who dwell in the moſt ſouthern region of the Ancient Continent, have, with hair ſtill more woolly, if poſſible, than the Negroes of the torrid zone, a much leſs dark complexion; the colour of their ſkin, when waſhed clean, being a yellowiſh brown, ſomewhat like that of an European affected with the jaundice in an high degree. The duſky tribes with ſoft curled hair, who may be found in the Philippines, ſome of the Moluccas, throughout New Guinea, and perhaps all New Holland, ſeem to reſemble, ſome of them the tropical Negroes of Africa, and others the Hottentots ‖.

In

‖ Philoſophical diſquiſitions are not my object, but I ſhall here take the liberty to obſerve, that if climate is the cauſe of the blackneſs of the ſkin, and woollineſs of the hair in the Negro race, it produces this effect not otherwiſe than by an operation continued through many generations, perhaps many centuries; as we find that thoſe of European and Negro anceſtry, who have dwelt together, without intermixture of blood, in the ſame countries at leaſt one century, but probably above two, are as perfectly diſtinct, as thoſe who have remained in their native regions of Europe and Africa. Authors, who have aſſerted that the Portugueſe, ſettled in the iſlands of Cape Verde and ſome other places, have, by the climate, been converted into Negroes, are

In America we find two kinds of coloniſts and two kinds of aboriginal people. The coloniſts are partly of the European and partly of the Negro race. The former, ſince the firſt diſcovery of the New World, have been perpetually migrating thither in queſt of riches: The latter have been miſerably torn from their native countries, and tranſported into ſlavery acroſs the Atlantic by the cruel policy of Europeans. A commixture of theſe two claſſes with each other, and with the aboriginal Americans, has produced ſeveral intermediate varieties, each gradation of which is carefully diſtinguiſhed in the Spaniſh colonies, but the two moſt ſtriking diſtinctions are marked in the Mulattoes and Meſtizos. The former are the children of an European and a Negro; the latter of an European and an aboriginal American. Of the two ſorts of aboriginal people inhabiting the New World, one is the Eſkeemo race, who are found on both the eaſtern and weſtern coaſts, and have already been mentioned. The other conſiſts of thoſe people who The Americans.

are certainly miſtaken; theſe people being Portugueſe only in name; for their progenitors have been ſo blended with the Negroes, that very probably not a fifth part of the blood which flows in the veins of the preſent generation, is derived from an European ſource. If the influence of the ſun cauſes the black complexion, (which I am far from thinking impoſſible or even improbable, but muſt conſider as not ſufficiently explained,) the ſupporters of this hypotheſis will have ſtill to ſhew why the ſolar heat, which has converted the hair of the Negros into wool, has made no ſuch change in that of the Gentoos; nor will this perhaps be found very difficult.

are

are commonly called American Indians *. The individuals of this widely diffuſed, but by no means numerous claſs, are ſaid to be ſo exactly ſimilar, that the man who has ſeen one has ſeen all †. But though the general ſimilitude is doubtleſs uncommonly ſtriking, yet conſiderable variations muſt neceſſarily take place both in the ſhade of colouring and turn of features. In general they are of a good ſize, but more ſlender and leſs robuſt than Europeans ‡. The colour of the ſkin is a reddiſh brown

* The application of the name of Indians to the Aborigines of America, though now fully ſanctioned by cuſtom, is founded in error, the cauſe of which may be ſeen in page 126 of this volume. The appellation of Indians belongs properly to none but the Aſiatic nations who inhabit the regions of India on both ſides of the Ganges, and the neighbouring iſlands of the Indian Ocean.

† This has been aſſerted particularly by Ulloa in his Noticias Americanas, p. 308.

‡ With reſpect to the tall race of men, who are ſaid to inhabit Patagonia, I ſhall only obſerve, that, as, on the one hand, to admit, without the moſt inconteſtable evidence, the exiſtence of a gigantic nation, would be ſtupid credulity; ſo, on the other, abſolutely to reject the teſtimonies of Wallis and Bougainville, who meaſured a tribe of the inhabitants, and found them to be from ſix feet to ſix feet and ſeven inches in height, or thereabout, would be preſumptuous enough, as we are quite unacquainted with the interior of the country, and conſequently know not but that, from ſome cuſtoms or notions prevalent among its inhabitants, the talleſt perſons of ſeveral tribes may aſſociate into one ſmall community; for it is not improbable that the ſame ſmall community was ſeen by ſeveral different navigators, particularly Byron, Wallis, Carteret and Bougainville. See Bougainville's Voyage, alſo thoſe of Byron and Wallis in Hawkeſworth's collection.

nearly

nearly reſembling that of copper. The hair of the head is univerſally by nature long, black, ſtrait, and coarſe, but none is ſuffered to grow on the face or any part of the body. The eyes are black or of a dark colour. The features are tolerably regular, where they are not diſtorted, or ſome way modified, by abſurd cuſtoms. It is obſerved that, among the venatic tribes of America, hardly any perſons are found deformed or defective in their corporal powers. But this exemption they have only in common with all other people, who are in a ſimilar ſituation with reſpect to their ſubſiſtence and mode of living, which is ſo hard and ſevere, that none but ſuch as are born with a perfectly ſound conſtitution, and free from bodily defects, can weather the ſtorms of ſavage life ſo as to arrive at the ſtate of manhood.

Manners.

At leaſt as variouſly modified as their corporal frame and colour, are the minds and manners of the human race. From the contemplation of the ſeveral ſtages of barbariſm and refinement, in which we behold the preſent generation of mankind throughout the earth, we might ſee, as it were, at a view the general hiſtory of one people, emerging from a ſtate of ſavage rudeneſs, and gradually riſing to the higheſt pitch of improvement which any nation has hitherto enjoyed. But I am far from ſuppoſing that any has as yet attained the ſummit of refinement, and that a vaſt field lies not ſtill open to future advances in civilization. Three diſcerning writers, Le Poivre, Robertſon, and Richardſon, have given each a rule, whereby to eſtimate the degree

degree of improvement to which a nation has arrived; the ſtate of its agriculture, its progreſs in the art of numeration, and the number of abſtract terms in its language. The firſt is the moſt obvious, as it ſtrikes at once the eye of a traveller; and it is no unjuſt inference, that where the culture of the ſoil is neglected, the human ſoul is uncultivated alſo, ſince wealth, ſciences, and refinements are incompatible with ſuch a ſtate of ſociety. It is ſtill more evident, that where men cannot reckon beyond a few units, and have no abſtract ideas, the reaſoning faculty is hardly at all exerciſed. But though ſingly by any of theſe rules a tolerable judgment may in general be formed, yet for an accurate eſtimate of particular caſes, not only all the three muſt be combined, but ſome other conſiderations taken into the account, as a nation may be more civilized than its neighbours in ſome reſpects, and leſs in others. I can attempt nothing farther on this ſubject than ſome looſe general remarks, in which will be included a few matters not ſo immediately connected with the ſtate of civilization. The brevity to which I am confined in this part of my work, if even my underſtanding and ſtore of materials were equal to the taſk, would totally preclude a full and accurate inveſtigation.

Of the loweſt claſs of mankind.

The loweſt degree in the ſcale of humanity, or the rank next above that of the brute creation, is aſſignable to many wild clans, who wander about in a ſtate of abſolute nakedneſs, having no clothing on any part, nor any other ſubſtitute for clothing than certain kinds of ointment with which they rub their

their ſkins, as a defence not only in ſome ſmall degree againſt the weather, but alſo againſt the attacks of gnats and other vexatious inſects. Their habitations are the moſt wretched temporary hovels, and many are deſtitute even of hovels, but take ſhelter occaſionally under trees, or in the hollows of rocks. Their food is the ſpontaneous vegetable productions of the earth, and the fleſh of ſuch animals as they can make their prey. Such is the torpor of their intellects, rude from the hand of Nature, unimproved and unexerted, that many can reckon no farther than ten or twenty at moſt, and ſome have no names of numbers above three. In this abject ſtate, commonly called the ſtate of Nature, a condition not greatly elevated above mere animal life, are many tribes in the warm regions of America, a few in ſouth Africa, all the aboriginals, ſo far as we know, of New Holland, and perhaps many in New Guinea and other inſular tracts of the ſurrounding ocean.

But in warm climates only can mankind remain in this naked and, as it were, infantine condition. Thoſe whom fortune has doomed to ſuſtain the rigours of a polar ſky, are driven by irreſiſtible neceſſity to the exerciſe of ſome invention to ſhield their bodies from the piercing cold, and procure ſome ſupport for life in the barren and inhoſpitable deſerts in which they roam. They are covered with ſkins, or other ſuch rude clothing, and fabricate implements for the taking of terrene or aquatic wild animals, which conſtitute almoſt their whole food. But, though, from ſuch exertions, theſe

theſe are to be accounted at leaſt a degree ſuperior to the naked ſavages above noticed, yet the total amount of their arts and knowledge have no other object than the bare preſervation of exiſtence. Under this deſcription may be comprehended all the Eſkeemo tribes and many others in their neighbourhood in the cold climates of North America, the miſerable race called Peſherays about the ſtrait of Magalhaens, the Samoyedes, Oſtiacs, and other venatic barbarians in northern Aſia, and, with ſome variation, the inhabitants of New Zealand in the ſouthern Pacific. A ſtep ſtill higher may be attained by many American tribes inhabiting the temperate climates, who have ſo far engaged in agriculture as thence to draw ſubſiſtence for a part of the year, during the reſt of which they depend for food on the chace, removing their encampments as occaſion requires. In nearly the ſame predicament, or perhaps a little more elevated, are thoſe Hottentot communities and others in ſouthern Africa, thoſe Laplanders in the north of Europe, and ſeveral of the ruder tribes of northern Aſia, who are wholly addicted to a roving paſtoral life, and ſubſiſt almoſt entirely on their herds of cattle.

Whatever good qualities may with truth be aſcribed to mankind in a ſtate of rude ſimplicity, ſome of an oppoſite nature are doubtleſs their portion. Among theſe are extreme indolence, and that inſenſibility of heart, with regard to the diſtreſſes of others, which is rightly denominated inhumanity, as being ſo ſtrongly characteriſtic of the unhumanized ſavage. The effects of this cruel temper

per of ſavages is ſeverely felt by all who are ſubject to their power; the faithful dogs and other tame animals, whoſe ſervices they never requite with tender care, and the ſick and helpleſs of their own ſpecies, who are often abandoned without remorſe to ſtruggle with their unhappy fate. A cuſtom even prevails in many tribes to conſign to death with a violent hand, or to leave to periſh in ſome lonely ſpot, ſuch as by age or infirmities are rendered unable to contribute to their own ſupport. To this melancholy lot the feeble wretches commonly ſubmit without a murmur; it being rather accounted an act of mercy, which gives a final releaſe to thoſe who are become an uſeleſs incumbrance to the community, their families, and themſelves. But above all others, the ſofter ſex are the much to be lamented victims of ſavage indolence and inſenſibility. A ſtranger to gentle or delicate ſentiments, and conſcious of ſuperior force, which his uninformed mind is apt to conſider as the chief or only excellence, man in his rude ſtate beholds the much more amiable, but weaker part of his ſpecies, with contempt. "To deſpiſe and to degrade the female ſex, is the characteriſtic of the ſavage in every part of the globe.*" Among all barbarian people, women are in the condition of

* Robertſon's Hiſtory of America vol. i. page 319. I have taken the liberty in this quotation to leave out the word *ſtate* after ſavage, as I cannot doubt that the learned, judicious, and elegant hiſtorian will agree with me in believing that to deſpiſe and degrade the female ſex is the characteriſtic of the *individual* ſavage, of whatever ſociety, rude or civilized, he be a member.

ſlaves, condemned to the carrying of burdens, and the performing of every other kind of drudgery, while their brutal maſters ſaunter or doze away the time in ſtupid inaction. Slavery is even too mild a name to expreſs the condition of women in the rudeſt tribes, particularly in America, where oft the mother, in a wild emotion of tenderneſs and pity, ſtifles the vital ſpark in the female infant, in order to ſave her from that life of ſorrow and inceſſant toil which ſhe knows would be otherwiſe her fate.

Improvidence and intemperance are alſo obſerved conſtantly to accompany what ſome authors have called the human brute or uncivilized man. The confined powers of his mind, unexpanded by culture, are too feeble to reflect on future wants, or reſtrain the appetite from preſent gratification. Waſting with a thoughtleſs prodigality what he has happened to acquire, and rouſed into action only by the calls of hunger, a ſummons to take vengeance of an enemy, the riot of a debauch, or ſome other wild irrational paſtime, he leads a life checquered with the extremes of alternate gluttony and famine, ſtrenuous activity and torpid repoſe. The joys of inebriation ſeem to be his ſupreme delight, to obtain the means of which many of the moſt ſtupid tribes of barbarians have exerted ſome ingenuity with too much ſucceſs. Among many barbarous people, where intoxicating drink is not procured from indigenous herbs or ſhrubs, by barter from abroad, or ſome other way, recourſe is had to other means of producing the joyous delirium. Thus

Thus ſome of the Americans have uſed for this purpoſe the ſmoke of tobacco inhaled by the noſtrils in a particular manner; and the northern Siberians obtain the ſame end by the uſe of a certain ſpecies of muſhroom. The love of gaming ſeems often little leſs violent than that of intoxication in the vacant breaſt of the unthinking ſavage. When engaged in play, he is ſometimes actuated with ſuch frantic ardor, that when all but liberty is loſt, he makes one deſperate effort more, and, ſtaking his perſon, in a game of hazard, on a ſingle throw, becomes the ſlave of the winner.

I have before obſerved that in the ruder tribes of mankind, among whom ſociety may be ſaid to be ſtill in its infancy, no viſible form of either government or religion ſubſiſts. To this may here be added that, excepting the females, whoſe lamentable and unmerited lot is bondage, no ſubordination is to be found among the individuals of the ſame houſhold or family; the children being ſuffered to grow up to manhood without any idea of parental authority or filial obedience, acting in a quite independent manner, and following no inſtructions or advice of their parents farther than they coincide with their own inclination. Hence may be eaſily inferred, what experience proves to be the caſe, that a ſtubborn indocile diſpoſition, a perverſe repugnance to authority, and a headſtrong purſuit of his own caprice, are component parts in the character of a ſavage man. Conformable alſo to the narrowneſs of his mind is that low diſingenuous cunning and inſidious artifice, which the exalted ſoul diſdains

to practiſe, but which is the chief exertion of the underſtanding in the unlettered barbarian. Nor ought perhaps the mention to be omitted of that implacable ſpirit of revenge; which rages with peculiar violence in the ſavage breaſt, and, though diſguiſed with profound diſſimulation, ſometimes for a length of many years, never loſes ſight of its object until an opportunity occurs of inflicting the fatal blow. Nor is this fell ſpirit always appeaſed by extinction of life; for, in ſome tribes a cuſtom ſtill prevails, which doubtleſs has been much more general, of devouring, all or in part, as a conſummation of vengeance, the fleſh of the ſlaughtered enemy.

Of the detached cuſtoms which prevail among thoſe who are here ſupopſed to conſtitute the loweſt claſs of mankind, two may be noticed, neither of which is however peculiar to this claſs, that of dancing, and that of marking the body with various figures. Dancing we know to be much practiſed as well among the moſt poliſhed, as the moſt barbarous nations; but the modes are quite different, and, while with the former it is merely an amuſement, with the latter it is generally a ſerious occupation, dances being ſeverally adapted to all kinds of ceremonies, as the performance of ſuperſtitious rites, the honourable reception of a gueſt or ſtranger, the declaration of war, or announcing of peace. The war-dance, which, like all the reſt, varies greatly in different parts of the globe, is a mock-fight or a repreſentation of a real battle, and ſeems to be of the ſame nature with the pyrrhic dance of the

the ancients. The colourings and markings of the face and other parts of the body, which are in uſe among moſt ſavage tribes, are generally intended for dreſs or ornament among thoſe who wear either very little, or no clothes, or as badges of diſtinction for various purpoſes; but, unlike the decorations of civilized people, they commonly render the bearer of them terrible inſtead of pleaſing, eſpecially among warlike tribes, whoſe aim is to make their aſpect formidable in order to impreſs an high idea of their ferocity, as was the caſe among the ancient ſavages of Europe. Some of theſe marks or figures, which are endleſsly varied by different nations, are only temporary paintings, and ſome are indelibly fixed by the puncturing of the ſkin and the infriction or inſertion of the colouring matter. But it is to be obſerved, that the manners and cuſtoms above attributed to the rudeſt nations and moſt unpoliſhed tribes, are not to be ſuppoſed as affirmed univerſally of all without exception; for the varieties, inconſiſtencies and contradictions of human manners are ſo numerous and glaring, that it is hard to know whether exceptions may not be found where they are to be very little expected.

Thoſe Negroes of Africa, and tropical iſlanders of the Indian and Pacific Oceans, eſpecially the latter, who ſubſiſt by agriculture, and, though dwelling in ardent climates, uſe ſome kind of clothes, yet cultivate no more than is barely neceſſary for the ſupport of life, and commonly wear no other garment than ſomething in the nature of a ſhort petticoat or apron deſcending toward the knees, may

may, together with ſeveral communities both in the New and Ancient Continent, as a conſiderable number of Nomadic tribes in the north of Africa, and in the weſt and north of Aſia, be ranked, though ſtill barbarous or uncivilized, in a claſs above the ſavage clans before mentioned, as poſſeſſing a more definite perſonal property, and acknowledging ſome ſpecies of eſtabliſhed ſubordination, and ceremonies of religion. In a claſs next above theſe, or in the third, when we reckon upward from barbariſm to refinement, may be placed the fixed * inhabitants of Morocco and of the other ſtates of Barbary; the Abyſſinians with ſome other large communities in Africa; moſt of the Egyptians, and fixed Arabs; the Malayan communities and others like them in the iſlands of the Indian Ocean; moſt of the people of Tranſgangene India and the Nomadic nations of the Mongol race in ſouthern Tartary, together with ſeveral other communities in the ſame vaſt region. No people of the wandering paſtoral kind are here ſuppoſed to riſe above the third claſs in the ſcale of humanity, though many are much below it. This Nomadic mode of life is purſued by a great proportion of the inhabitants of both ſouthern and northern Africa, and perhaps in the interior unknown regions of that portion of the globe; throughout the greater part of Arabia and ſome neighbouring tracts; the vaſt countries of Tartary, and the northern extremity of Europe called Lapland. The various tribes, inhabiting ſo

Of the ſecond and third claſſes.

* By fixed, I mean thoſe who dwell in fixed habitations in oppoſition to the Nomades or wanderers.

many

many various parts of the Earth, who are comprehended under the general denomination of Nomades, may, however widely different from one another, be deſcribed as occupying, inſtead of fixed habitations, ſome ſort of moveable encampments of either temporary huts or tents, and ſubſiſting chiefly or wholly on their cattle, with which they march from place to place, in order to procure a ſucceſſive ſupply of freſh paſturage, as that which is in the neighbourhood of any one encampment is commonly exhauſted in a ſhort time. The Nomades.

The fourth claſs, in which, as in each of the reſt, we muſt imagine ſeveral gradations, may comprehend the Japaneſe, the Chineſe, the Hindoos or people of Hindoſtan, the Perſians, the Turks, and ſeveral European tribes, particularly many inhabitants of Prúſſia and the countries about the lower parts of the Danube. Of the fourth claſs.

As many cuſtoms of the nations denominated Oriental are widely different from thoſe of weſtern Europe, and as all theſe nations are comprehended in the third and fourth claſſes, a few general remarks may be made in this place concerning them. The appellation of oriental or eaſtern is, in its common acceptation, extended chiefly to the inhabitants of Japan, China, the Indian regions on both ſides of the Ganges, the Malayan, and moſt other iſlands of the Indian Ocean, Perſia, the Turkiſh provinces in Europe and Aſia, Arabia, Egypt, and Barbary †. In general throughout theſe nations, The Orientals.

† Though Barbary extends as far to the weſt as any part of Europe, yet as the inhabitants derive their manners from Aſia, they are reckoned in this reſpect Orientals.

though

though they are greatly elevated, with reſpect to civilized manners, above the claſs of ſavages, the condition of the more amiable ſex appears to be a gentle ſpecies of ſlavery; as among the poorer ranks of people they ſeem to be under a ſevere enough ſubjection, and among the rich are conſidered merely as objects of ſenſual pleaſure deſtined for the gratification of the other ſex. Concubines are purchaſed, and the number kept by any man is limited only by his inclination and ability to procure and maintain them. Georgia, Circaſſia, and other Caucaſian countries, famous for eminence in female beauty, furniſh the greateſt export of this kind of merchandize to the neighbouring nations, and no leſs a price than 700 pounds is ſometimes paid for an accompliſhed young girl brought from theſe countries.

Marriage on terms of equality between the ſexes, as in Europe is in uſe; but marriage alſo of a different kind is found to take place, and the wife is often purchaſed, as well as the concubine. In either caſe the ſuitor ſees not the face of his intended bride until the day of marriage. Cuſtom confines ladies of all denominations in ſequeſtered apartments, and permits not their faces to be ſeen by any men but their owners. When they are ſuffered to appear in the ſtreets, though they are ſo veiled that neither their feature nor ſhape can be diſtinguiſhed, they muſt not be viewed with attention by the oppoſite ſex, but politeneſs demands that men, who happen to meet them, turn away their eyes to another quarter until they have paſſed. In ſo great a number

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of nations exceptions muſt be admitted; as in the Malayan ſtates, where women are under ſo much leſs reſtraint than among the Perſians, Arabs, and Turks, that ſome travellers have affirmed their condition to be nearly as free as that of their ſex in Europe.

Directly contrary to the manner of Europeans, the Orientals never uncover the head out of reſpect to any being; but, inſtead thereof, when they enter a place conſecrated to religion, or the apartment of a perſon to whom deference is due, they ſo far uncover the feet as to leave their ſhoes or ſlippers outſide the door. Excepting the iſlanders of the Indian Ocean, and moſt of the nations of India beyond the Ganges, they wear the beard, all or in part, at various lengths, and keep the head cloſely ſhaven; but ſeveral nations, as the Chineſe, reſerve a ſingle lock on the top of the head, and the females, as elſewhere in almoſt every part of the globe, retain all their hair. With an exception of the inhabitants of ſome countries, eſpecially the Malayan iſlands and Perſia, the male ſex, as well as the female, wear long robes, which fall as low as the gowns of European women, particularly the Japaneſe, Chineſe, Hindoos, and Turks. Beſide tobacco, the ſmoking of opium, or ſome other manner of taking it, ſo as to produce a pleaſing delirium, is practiſed among the Orientals, at leaſt from China weſtward. Beſide this, particularly eaſtward of Indus, the ſeeree and penang, otherwiſe called betel and areca, are inceſſantly chewed even from infancy; and to addreſs a ſuperior would

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be accounted indecent, without a previous perfuming of the mouth with this favourite compoſition, which imparts an agreeable flavour to the breath, and a lively red colour to the lips. It is ſimply prepared by ſpreading on the ſeeree leaf, which belongs to a ſpecies of creeping ſhrub, a little quick lime made from calcined ſhells, with ſometimes other ingredients, and afterwards folding in the leaf a few ſlices of the penang nut, which grows on a tree reſembling the coco. This compoſition, which is commonly expreſſed by the ſingle word *betel*, is always preſented as a token of civility to viſitants. Its uſe prevails chiefly in the Malayan iſlands, and the Tranſgangene regions of India, where alſo the teeth of both ſexes univerſally are dyed black by the application of a certain matter, after the enamel is filed away to prepare them for its reception.

Among other luxurious indulgences, that which is called champooing is much practiſed, chiefly eaſtward of the Indus. The operation is commonly performed on rich perſons by ſlaves, who ſtrongly rub, ſqueeze, and ſtretch the body and limbs. This procedure is found to create agreeable ſenſations, and is ſuppoſed to contribute to the health of the ſubject. Weſtward of the Indus and Euphrates, frequent immerſion in the hot bath is more the cuſtom; a cuſtom to which ſome have aſcribed ſalutary, and others with more reaſon pernicious effects. In theſe ſame weſtern-oriental nations, if the expreſſion be allowed, from the Indus and Euphrates to the Atlantic, the women ſtain their hands,

hands, or at leaſt the ends of the fingers, yellow; and heighten the natural brilliancy, or fire, of the eye by tinging the eye-laſhes, and even the eye-balls, with a certain black powder. The ſame nations commonly have their houſes formed with flat roofs, on which, when the weather is favourable for that purpoſe, they ſleep, and ſpend moſt of their time in the open air. On theſe roofs the women paſs from houſe to houſe in the towns, without deſcending to the ſtreet. Here we may obſerve that, while moſt of the Arctic tribes form their habitations beneath the ſurface of the ground, as a protection againſt the piercing cold, and many Oriental nations of the temperate zone may be ſaid to live great part of their time on the tops of the houſes outſide, not a few of the inhabitants of the torrid zone build in ſuch a manner on poſts or pillars, that a vacant ſpace being left of ſix, eight, or fourteen feet in height between the floor and the ground, the dwellers aſcend and deſcend by a ladder or notched ſtick. This mode of building is neceſſary in places expoſed to the periodical inundations of the intratropical rains, but ſeems alſo to have been adopted by ſeveral people, particularly ſome iſlanders of the Indian Ocean, from motives of ſecurity againſt thieves; for when the ladder is drawn up into the houſe by the owners, the acceſs is rendered difficult to the intruder.

Modes of building.

To the fifth claſs, which contains the higheſt degree of civilization to which mankind have as yet arrived, belong the Britiſh, French, Dutch, German, and Britiſh-American nations, together with

Of the fifth claſs.

with ſome other people of European race. Very little room can be here allowed to ſpeak of poliſhed nations. It is obvious that, while in each rude community of the loweſt or moſt barbarous claſs, all the members, who compoſe it, ſtand almoſt at the ſame common level of ignorance, poverty, and ſimplicity, a prodigious diſparity is found between individuals in civilized ſociety, in reſpect of rank, wealth, and illumination of mind, from the beggar to the prince, and from the illiterate ſwain to the enlightened philoſopher. Some learned men have doubted, ſeemingly in a wanton propenſity to diſputation, whether arts, ſciences, and other improvements of man in an advanced ſtate, contribute to his real happineſs; and have even given the preference to ſavage life. To decide the conteſted point might require much argumentation, and it muſt be confeſſed that evils ariſe to counterbalance in ſome ſmall meaſure the happy effects of the progreſs of ſociety. Vices, the peculiar growth of that rank ſoil which is called civilized life, combined with thoſe which more properly belong to mankind in a rude ſtate, render many perſons of all ranks much more the objects of contempt, in the eye of reaſon and ſound philoſophy, than the hardy and ſimple ſavage ‡. But, notwithſtanding the turpitude

‡ "The youth of fire, who hath drunk deep and play'd,
"And kill'd his man, and triumph'd o'er his maid,"
(Young's Satires.)

is a ſavage in civilized ſociety, however poliſhed his exterior may be. The man, who, without remorſe, reduces to ruin, infamy and

tude of numbers, no doubt can be entertained that civilization, on the whole amount, beautifies the ſurface of our globe, and ennobles and exalts human nature. In particular it vaſtly meliorates the condition of the more amiable part of our ſpecies, and brings it more nearly to an equality with the other ſex. Doubtleſs the higheſt degree of civilization will be marked by the moſt perfect equality practicable between the two ſexes in perſonal rights, and culture of the mind. But let not the nations of Europe ſuppoſe themſelves near the higheſt ſtage of improvement, while, among a multitude of unreaſonable prejudices and reprehenſible cuſtoms, the torturing to death of that moſt uſeful animal, the bull, is the public amuſement of the populace; while the traffic and ſlavery of the human ſpecies is authorized by government; while the female mind, as if an improper ſubject of culture, is neglected, and the attention given only to the external appearance; while the law of reputation dooms to irremediable diſgrace a woman, though her ſex is confeſſed to be the weaker and more fallible, for a ſingle falſe ſtep, and yet, without any meaſure of equity, overlooks a thouſand ſuch in a male; and while, in the moſt enlightened nation in Europe, the law of the ſtate conſigns alive to the

and miſery, the moſt amiable of Nature's works, an innocent female, deceived by his fraudulent profeſſions, has undoubtedly, whatever may be his addreſs and external demeanour, *the heart of a brute*, and a baſe narrow ſoul, quite oppoſite to that generoſity of ſentiment, and noble ſenſibility, which characterizes an exalted mind.

flames

flames the ſofter and more timid ſex, for the ſame kind of crimes, for which a much leſs dreadful puniſhment is appointed for the maſculine, and much leſs eaſily terrified part of the ſpecies.

Of the Europeans.

I cannot entertain a doubt, but that the moſt civilized nation of the preſent time will, in a future age, be conſidered as barbarous by a more enlightened poſterity. In ſciences, the diffuſion of literature, and many arts, the ſuperiority of European nations, collectively conſidered, over other nations of the globe, is prodigious, particularly in the art of war. Perhaps all the powers of Aſia could not bring into the field an army able to cope with the twentieth part of the European military force; and perhaps a fortieth of the naval ſtrength of this ſmall quarter of the globe would be an overmatch for the united fleets, not only of Aſia, but even of all other parts of the earth. Among the Europeans, which appellation is here meant to extend to the Britiſh-Americans, but not to the Turks, literature is cultivated to a degree elſewhere unknown; which, together with the mild ſpirit of Chriſtianity, the ideas of chivalry which formerly prevailed, and perhaps ſome other co-operating cauſes, produces many happy effects, the more in proportion as it is more diffuſed. It mitigates even the rigours of deſpotiſm; the adminiſtration of government in the moſt abſolute monarchies of Europe being accompanied with a degree of equity, at leaſt of mildneſs, with which the Oriental deſpots and their ſlaves are unacquainted. It mollifies alſo the horrors of war; the utmoſt valour being ſhewn in battle, but the captives and

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the vanquiſhed treated with a mildneſs and humanity, of which even the moſt poliſhed nations of antiquity had no idea. To the turn of mind which leads to this generous mode of warfare, the free ſocial intercourſe of the females with the other ſex may contribute much. It certainly contributes to that livelineſs of converſation and gaiety of manner, for which the Europeans, however widely different among themſelves in this reſpect, are in general remarkable; for what is obſerved of the Orientals is applicable to ſeveral other nations and tribes, that they are of a grave and ſolemn deportment, addicted to taciturnity, and fond of inaction, having no notion of taking exerciſe on account of amuſement or health, and ſeldom ſtirring from their ſeats, except when buſineſs preſſes them. We may in this place remark that, with exception of many among the Chineſe, the Europeans are the only people who make uſe of ſuch high ſeats as chairs; all other nations commonly ſitting croſs-legged, or in ſome ſuch ſquat poſture, on the ground, on mats, or on ſome kind of carpeting; a cuſtom which tends to render the legs crooked or otherwiſe miſ-ſhapen.

SECTION

SECTION THE TENTH.

DIVISION OF THE EARTH—OF THE OLD CONTINENT—OF THE ISLANDS—OF THE NEW CONTINENT.

Diviſion of the earth.

HAVING thus taken a ſuperficial and conciſe general view of our planet and its inhabitants, I ſhall proceed to the particular deſcriptions of its ſeveral regions, both continental and inſular; previouſly ſtating the diviſions of the globe's ſurface, and the order in which the various countries, into which it is divided, are to be deſcribed in the ſequel. Geographers diſtinguiſh the earth into four unequal diviſions, which from their number are ſometimes called quarters; Europe, Aſia, Africa, and America; under each of which diviſions, though in ſtrictneſs of ſpeech they belong only to the continents, the neighbouring iſlands are often meant to be comprehended. America is only another term for the New Continent, which with its iſlands has been frequently called the New World. The three other diviſions conjointly conſtitute the Old Continent, Africa occupying its ſouthern peninſula, Europe and Aſia its northern. Geographers are not unanimous with reſpect to the poſition of a line which ſhould ſeparate the two laſt named diviſions; but that

that which ſeems to be moſt ſtrongly marked by Nature as their common boundary, or diſcriminating limit, is formed by the ſummits of the Uralian mountains, the river Ural, otherwiſe called Yäik, the Caſpian ſea, the ſummits of the Caucaſus, the Euxine ſea, and that chain of ſtraits and ſeas which iſſues from the ſouth-weſtern ſide of that famous gulph.

On account of the ſyſtematic connection ſubſiſting among the European ſtates, one of the principal of which is entirely inſular, and alſo on account of the political union between the continental countries of Europe and the inſular tracts near their coaſts, the iſlands placed in the vicinity of this portion of the earth are to be deſcribed jointly with the continental regions near which they lie; but all the other iſlands of the globe are to be taken in a ſeparate order, quite detached from both continents. This being premiſed, the regions of the Old Continent, together with the inſular countries of Europe, may be arranged in the following manner; the Spaniſh peninſula, France, and Italy, each with its iſlands, Switzerland, Germany, the Netherlands, the inſular ſyſtem of Great Britain, the Ferroe iſlands, Iceland, the iſlands of Spitzberg, and Nova Zembla, the continental countries of Lapland, Norway, Denmark, Sweden, Ruſſia, Poland, Hungary, the Danubian provinces, under which appellation are comprehended Sclavonia, Boſnia, Dalmatia, Servia, Tranſilvania, Moldavia, Beſſarabia, Bulgaria, and Walachia; the Turkiſh provinces in Europe, which are chiefly Thrace, Albania, and Greece

Of the Old Continent.

with its iſlands; the Turkiſh provinces in Aſia, which may be ſaid to conſiſt of Anatolia, Syria, Chaldæa, Meſopotamia, Curdiſtan or Aſſyria, and Armenia; the Caucaſian regions, among which may be reckoned Georgia, Circaſſia, and Mingrelia; Tartary, which excepting a ſmall part in Europe lies all in Aſia; China, Tranſgangene India, Ciſgangene India or Hindoſtan, Perſia, Arabia, Egypt, Ethiopia Superior, and Ethiopia Inferior, Zanguebar, Caffraria, Congo, Guinea, Nigritia, and Barbary.

Of the iſlands.

The iſlands which lie ſcattered throughout the immenſe expanſe of ocean, may be conceived to ſerve in ſome degree to connect the two continents, and excepting thoſe of Europe, may be arranged for deſcription in the following order; the Azores, the Madeiras, the Canaries, the iſlands of Cape Verde, the iſlands of Guinea Bite, Saint Mathew, Aſcenſion, Saint Helena, the Iſle of Deſolation, with ſome others of ſmall ſize in the ſame portion of the ocean, the Maſcarenas, Madagaſcar, the Comoras, the Sechelles, with ſome other ſmall iſlands in the ſame tract, the iſlands on the coaſt of Zanguebar, Socotora, with a few others, the Laccadives, the Maldives, Ceylon, the Andamans, the Niccabars, the Sundas, Celebes, the Moluccas, the Sooloos, the Philippines, the Carolines including the Pelews, the Ladrones, the Baſhees, the iſlands on the coaſt of China, the Lekeyos, the iſlands of Japan, the Kuriles, with ſome others on the coaſt of Tartary, the Catharina Archipelago including the Fox iſlands; the Sandwich iſlands, the Peſcadores,

dores, with ſome others in their vicinity, the iſlands of New Guinea, the immenſe inſular region of New Holland, New Zealand, New Caledonia, the New Hebrides, the Friendly iſlands, the Society iſlands with Otaheitee, the Marqueſas, Eaſter Iſland, the Gallipagos, the iſles of Juan Fernandes, the iſlands of Terra del Fuego, the Falkland iſlands, ſouthern Georgia, Sandwich land with ſouthern Thule, the iſles belonging to Brazil, the great Weſt Indian archipelago, comprehending the Caribbees, Antilles, and Bahamas; the Bermudas, the iſles in the ſea of Saint Lawrence, Newfoundland, and the iſlands in the gulph of Labrador.

Of the New Continent.

We may begin with the New Continent at the Labrador gulph, where we have ended with the iſlands, and conſider its diviſions in the arrangement following; Greenland, New Wales, Labrador, Canada, Nova Scotia, the independent Britiſh-American countries, Florida, Louiſiana, the immenſe regions of North America ſtill poſſeſſed by the ſavages, extending from the countries mentioned above to the northern and Pacific Oceans; California, New Mexico, with New Navarre, Cinaloa, and Sonora; Old Mexico, including Yucatan; Terra Firma with New Granada; Peru, Chili, Patagonia, Paraguay or Laplata, Brazil, and Guiana.

THE SPANISH PENINSULA AND THE ISLANDS ON ITS COASTS.

SPAIN

ASSUMED in the moſt extenſive ſenſe, ſo as to include the kingdom of Portugal, is a great and famous peninſula, forming the ſouth-weſtern extremity of Europe, and divided from the main continent by the lofty chain of the Pyrenean mountains, which, croſſing the iſthmus from ſea to ſea, ſeems to forbid all intercourſe by land between this country and the reſt of Europe, but leaves a few paſſes or narrow defiles, commonly reckoned five in number, by which the nations, who dwell on the oppoſite ſides of this celebrated range, have a mutual communication. No inlets of the ſea or ocean penetrate far into this peninſula. Of its line of coaſt an idea can be obtained only from the inſpection of its map. The plan of its ſoil, excepting in the northern parts, riſes with a far more ſlow aſcent from

General face.

from the ocean than from the Mediterranean, and ſeems to terminate in a curved ridge, which winds from Biſcay towards the ſouth-eaſt, and riſing to its greateſt height above the original ſource of the Tagus in the ſouth-weſt of Arragon, turns ſouthward to Murcia and Granada, dividing the waters of the Guadiana and Guadalquivir from thoſe of the rivers which flow to the Mediterranean. With the admiſſion of ſome exceptions, a few of which are very ſtriking, the general face, which this region of the earth preſents to the view, conſiſts of ſome vaſt plains almoſt deſtitute of trees and verdure, bounded by long chains of mountains of a rocky and barren aſpect, many of whoſe ſummits are covered with ſnow during the greater part of the year, and ſome even throughout the ſummer. —Theſe lofty chains ſeem to have a mutual connection among themſelves, as well as with the Pyrenees, and to conſtitute what has been called the ſkeleton or frame of the peninſula §. To trace all theſe through their numerous ramifications would be ſtill more difficult than tedious. Let it ſuffice to ſtate the principal of them, ſo far as information has on this head been acquired.

Mountains. From the weſtern end of the Pyrenees departs what may be termed the Cantabrian Chain, which advances to the weſt, and filling the greater part of Biſcay, the Aſturias, and Gallicia, terminates on

§ Jardine's Letters from Barbary, France, Spain, and Portugal, vol. ii. p. 23. a work replete with judicious reflections, and containing much uſeful information.

that

that ſide in the well known promontory of Cape Finiſterre ‖. From theſe mountains, where they bound the Aſturias to the ſouth, run two remarkable ranges; the one to the eaſt, called by the modern Spaniards la Sierra del Oca *, and by the ancient Romans Mons Idubeda; the other to the ſouth, partly dividing Gallicia and Portugal from the reſt of the country †. The laſt range ſeems to form ſome concatenation with the Guadarramas, which tend toward the north-eaſt and eaſt, raiſing ſome of its pikes above the limit of perpetual ſnow, and commanding an extenſive proſpect over the vaſt plains of the two Caſtiles, which are ſeparated by this chain ‡. Another long range ſeems to communicate with this, and to run to the ſouth through the ſouth-weſt of Arragon and north-eaſt of New Caſtile, bearing different names in different places, as la Sierra de Albaracin, Blanca, and de Cuenza §. That part of it which is called la Sierra Blanca ſeems to ſtand on the moſt elevated baſe of all the Spa-

‖ Jardine's Letters, vol. ii. p. 23. Townſend's Travels in Spain, vol. i. page 249. Dublin 1792.

* Dillon's Travels in Spain, Dublin 1781, page 136, a book which gives much information with reſpect to the natural hiſtory of the country, taken from the Spaniſh works of Don Guillierme Bowles.

† Jardine, vol. ii. p. 238.

‡ Dillon, p. 121, &c. Townſend, vol. i. page 321.

§ This is inferred from a collective view of ſeveral travels. The ſame is to be underſtood in ſome meaſure in each of the above quotations, and in ſome others, where, though only one traveller is quoted, the idea is formed from the accounts of more.

niſh

niſh mountains, or in the higheſt part which the plan of the ſoil forms in this great peninſula. Between the plains of Andaluſia and thoſe of New Caſtile, the celebrated Sierra Morena, the Montes Mariani of the Romans, riſes with majeſtic height, advancing from Murcia weſtward to Portugal, where it diminiſhes and gives paſſage to the river Guadiana; but again elevating its ridges on the oppoſite ſide of that noted ſtream, and proceeding to the ocean, it ends in the promontory of Saint Vincent, and forms by its declivities and vallies the beautiful little Portugueſe province of Algarva ‖. Of the mountains, which are ſaid to occupy two-thirds of Granada province, the Alpuxarras are the greateſt, whoſe chief direction is from eaſt to weſt, and whoſe higheſt part, called Sierra Nevada, is affirmed to be always crowned, in this hot climate, with ſnow. Inferior chains, which ſeem to be concatenations, of this large group, extend on one ſide to the vicinity of Carthagena, and on the other to the bay of Gibraltar.

Of Spaniſh mountains which merit obſervation ſingly, without reference to any range, the moſt remarkable ſeem to be Filabres and Montſerrat. The former, diſtant about three leagues from Almeria in the province of Granada, conſiſts entirely of a ſingle ſtone, or ſolid block, of white marble, a league in circuit, and near 700 yards in perpendicular height *. The latter, famous for its mo-

‖ Jardine's Letters, vol. ii. page 231.

* Dillon, page 357.

naſtery

naſtery and hermitages, whoſe number ſeems to be at leaſt 15, is an enormous inſulated maſs, ſituate nine leagues weſtward of Barcelona, about eight leagues in circuit, tending from eaſt to weſt, with a viſible inclination to the weſt, and towering with an altitude of 1100 yards, ſo that from its ſummit the iſland of Majorca, diſtant 180 miles, may in clear weather be ſeen. Its ſcenery is altogether ſtrange and awful; its ſides being ſplit into tremendous fiſſures, and its naked rocks, whoſe interſtices are filled with ever-green woods, ſpiring to a vaſt height in the forms of cones, pillars, organs, and other fantaſtic ſhapes †.

The mountains of Spain from their number and great elevation, may well be expected to collect immenſe quantities of vapours for the ſupply of rivers. About 150 ſtreams of ſome conſiderable ſize are ſaid to water the peninſula ‡, but from the nature of the country and the negligence of its inhabitants very few are navigable through any conſiderable length of courſe. We may alſo remark concerning the Spaniſh rivers in general, that they are ſubject to violent floods by the falling of rain or the melting of ſnow in the mountains, though for the greater part of the year their ſtreams are very low, their waters being abſorbed by the thirſty plains through which they run: Hence bridges, Rivers.

† See the Travels in Spain of Mr. Swinburne, a very intelligent traveller, Dublin 1779, from page 52 to 62. Dillon from page 409 to 414. See alſo Thickneſſe's Travels.

‡ Peyron's Eſſays on Spain, added as a third volume to Bourgoanne's Travels, London 1789, page 16.

calculated

calculated for the ſwollen ſtate of the rivers, appear to tranſient foreigners totally diſproportionate to the ſtreams over which they are built §. The rivers moſt remarkable for length, breadth, depth, and whoſe channels receive and convey to the ocean and Mediterranean the waters of moſt of the reſt, are the Ebro, the Douro, the Tajo, the Guadiana, and Guadalquivir. All theſe, except the firſt, have their ſources near the Mediterranean, and flow to the ocean. The Ebro, drawing its primary waters from the Cantabrian chain, enters the Mediterranean after a courſe of near 500 Engliſh miles, navigable, by ſmall craft only, from its mouth to Tortoſa, 18 miles. The Douro, or Duero, anciently named Durius, riſing from the chains of mountains which ſtand on the ſouthern ſide of the Ebro, pours its rapid ſtream into the ocean at Oporto, after a winding courſe of about 700 miles. The Tajo, or Tagus, the greateſt of all the Spaniſh rivers, has its original fountain near the Sierra Blanca ||, the moſt elevated part of the plan of this peninſula, about 105 miles from the Mediterranean, whence it winds in a channel of above 750 miles in length to Liſbon, where it flows to the ocean with a moſt majeſtic ſtream, receiving the tide as far up its channel as Santarem *, about 50 miles from its influx.

§ Bourgoanne's Travels, London 1789. vol. i. page 203.
|| Dillon, page 220.
* Dillon, page 4.

The

The Guadiana, or Anas, riſing in La Mancha, is famous for a phenomenon not altogether ſingular. Abſorbed by the porous earth it quite diſappears in the meadows near Alcazar de San Juan in the country of La Mancha, and making its way under ground thence near eight leagues, iſſues again to the light at certain lakes called the Eyes of the Guadiana †, whence proceeding, in its way, it ſeems to force a paſſage through the Sierra Morena, having immenſe precipices for its banks ‡, and mixes its waters with thoſe of the Atlantic near Aymonte, having run with its windings above 700 miles. The Guadalquivir, the Bœtis of the Romans, formerly navigable up to Cordova 130 miles from its mouth, riſes in the Sierra de Segura on the borders of La Mancha, and after ſerpentizing through a length of above 400 miles, makes its efflux at San Lucar de Barrameda. Guadiana.

† Dillon page 446. To this alludes a Spaniſh poet in this epigram.

Ales & amnis Anas ſociant cum nomine mores.
Mergitur ales aqua; mergitur amnis humo.

Hence has ariſen the paradox of a bridge on which many herds of cattle graze. The ſurface of the tract of ground, which is called the bridge, ſeems to be in ſome places tolerably firm, but its lower parts appear to be a kind of ſubterraneous bog, replete with fiſſures to a vaſt depth, and deſtitute of ſolid materials to reſiſt the preſſure of the water. Monſieur Peyron, page 308, denies this phenomenon, treating it as a mere fable, but brings no proof. Mr. Dillon, who takes his account from Bowles, who viſited and examined the place, ſeems to have a much ſuperior authority.

‡ Jardine, vol. ii. page 231.

Of

The Tinto. Of the inferior rivers of this peninſula, among which are ſome of no contemptible magnitude, as the Minho, Segura, Xucar, and Guadalaviar, the Tinto ſeems the moſt worthy of notice on account of the ſingular and ſurprizing quality of its waters. It runs from the Sierra Morena ſouthward by Niebla about 80 miles before it is mingled with the ocean. Tinged with copper mines and other ſubſtances, its waters are, for a conſiderable way below its fountain, deſtitute of fiſh, and yellow as a topaz. It perfectly conglutinates and unites in the ſpace of a year the ſtones which happen to lie one on another in its channel. It hardens and petrifies the ſand on its banks; deſtroys the verdure where it touches; withers the plants and roots of trees, communicating to them the colour of its waters; and kills worms in the ſtomachs of cattle; but goats alone, to whoſe fleſh it ſeems to give a fine flavour, drink it willingly. By the influx of other ſtreams theſe qualities gradually diſappear, ſo that at the town of Niebla, ſix leagues from the ſea, its waters have no peculiarity §.

Canals. To procure to Spain the advantages of inland navigation, an object very deſirable, and hitherto little known in this moſt improvable country, canals have been begun, which may perhaps be finiſhed in the courſe of thirty or forty years, on a plan ſuperior to any thing of the kind hitherto executed in Europe; the depth of water being nine feet, the breadth at bottom twenty feet, at top fifty-ſix,

§ Dillon, page 332 and 333.

the

the locks and other maſon work excellent, and the length of navigation ſeveral hundred miles. By one, which is called the canal of Arragon, a communication is to be opened through the Ebro from the bay of Biſcay to the Mediterranean. Another, called the canal of Caſtile, is, with all its branches, to have an extent of three or four hundred miles, running from Segovia to Reynoſa, and branching weſtward to Zamora. The expenſe of theſe canals will be enormous; the work coſting in ſome places three or four thouſand, in others eleven or twelve thouſand pounds the Engliſh mile ‖.

Spain is ſaid to abound in mineral waters of a ſanative nature, though not ſo well known as they deſerve in the reſt of Europe. Among theſe the ſprings of Trillo and Caldas may be mentioned, both of which are ſaid to have the happieſt effects in ſeveral diſorders, both taken internally and uſed in bathing. The ſprings of Trillo, which are of ſo mild a warmth as ſcarcely to equal the heat of the human blood, are ſituate about 17 leagues eaſtward of Madrid, on the ſouthern ſide of the Tagus, and oppoſite to the village of Trillo which ſtands on the northern *. Thoſe of Caldas, which lie at a ſmall diſtance northward from Barcelona, are boiling hot, inſomuch that the neighbouring peaſants boil their eggs and vegetables, by ſimply ſuſpending them in a baſket under the ſpout of a fountain †. Mineral waters.

‖ Townſend, vol. i. page 135, 136, 137, 232.
* Dillon, from page 93 to 101.
† Dillon, from page 430 to 433.

From

Air and temperature.

From the great inequalities and various poſitions of its ſurface, the air of this peninſula varies very much in reſpect of dryneſs and humidity, as well as temperature. The vaſt interior plains, unſheltered by trees, and expoſed naked to the fierce beams of the ſun, ſuffer a great want of moiſture, are arid in ſummer, and of a brown hue; but rains and humid air prevail in Biſcay, the Aſturias, and Gallicia, whoſe mountains intercept the vapours from the neighbouring ocean. The variation with reſpect of warmth is very ſtriking; many mountains riſe to ſuch altitude as to be crowned with ſnow in ſummer; Many of the plains are ſo elevated and expoſed to northern winds as to ſuſtain a ſevere winter with much froſt and ſnow; but in the low plains of the ſouth, ſcreened by their mountains from northerly blaſts, the grim froſt is unknown, and winter is diſarmed of almoſt all her aſperity. The month of January, ſo bleak in higher latitudes, is in theſe warm regions a ſeaſon of delight; roſes and vaſt numbers of flowers being then in full blow, and the ſun ſhedding a comfortably warm ray. The winter brings, inſtead of froſt, very heavy rains. The ſhowers begin to fall toward the end of September, and prevail at intervals until April or May. They are particularly heavy in December and January, accompanied with tempeſtuous winds, tremendous thunder and lightning. But theſe gloomy intervals are of ſhort duration; the ſky ſoon clears and reaſſumes its uſual ſerenity. In all the low parts of this country the ſpring is very early, and the corn harveſt commences

ces before the middle of May. The heats during the months of June, July, Auguſt, and part of September, are intenſe; the earth is parched, and ſouth-eaſterly winds called *ſolanos*, ſometimes blow, bringing with them a ſuffocating heat which cauſes diſtempers among the inhabitants ‡. But, excepting a few ſhort interventions of gloom, the ſky is all the year ſerene and bright. Even in the hotteſt months the nights are refreſhing, and cauſe voluptuous ſenſations; the ſtars ſhining with inconceivable luſtre above the head, millions of glow-worms gliſtening on the ground §, and the air perfumed with odours of various aromatic plants, which are ſo abundant as to fill all around with their grateful effluvia.

Productions.

This great peninſula, adapted by its temperature and ſoil to the abundant production of a vaſt variety of Nature's gifts, is, excepting a few territories, partly waſte and partly in a moſt wretched ſtate of culture; ſo that its inhabitants are more indebted to Nature than any efforts of their own for their ſubſiſtence. In ſome parts of the ſouth, where the hand of induſtry collects the waters for a conſtant ſupply of the thirſty ground, the fertility is prodigious. Near San Felipe, in the province of Valencia, the ſoil produces three crops in the year ‖. In this luxuriant province the earth is continually covered with fruits; the mulberry

‡ Dillon, page 328 and 371.
§ Dillon, page 476.
‖ Dillon, page 393.

trees

trees are thrice in twelve months deſpoiled of their leaves; the meadows of trefoil and lucerne are mowed eight or ten times in the ſame period; and beneath the ſhade of mulberry and olive trees, which ſpread over the country in whole foreſts, the ſoil yields ſtrawberries, grain, and a variety of vegetables *. The grapes, each equal in ſize to a nutmeg, hang in bunches of fourteen pounds weight, and, in ſeveral parts of Spain, water-melons, with a ſtem of only two or three ounces, weigh from twenty to thirty pounds †. But the concurrence of induſtry with a benignity of ſoil is far from common in this fine peninſula, which in general, from a want of moiſture and human care, ſtrikes the eye with the appearance of ſterility.

Among the few of the very numerous productions of this region, which are here to be mentioned, is the great palm tree. This grows in all the ſouthern provinces, but at the town of Elche, in South Valencia, it forms a foreſt as far as the eye can reach, in which the greater number of the trees are above 120 feet high. The dates hang in cluſters of from fifteen to twenty-five pounds weight at the top of the tree, and even the branches are an article of commerce, being ſent to Italy for the proceſſion of Palm Sunday ‡. As the cluſters of dates hang ſo as to form a complete circle, they give, when ripe, to the top of the tree the appear-

* Bourgoanne, vol. ii. page 301.

† Dillon, page 36 and 400.

‡ Peyron, page 414, and Swinburne, page 125.

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ance of a crown of gold with a plume of feathers riſing from its center. But though this fruit is moſtly yellow in its ripe ſtate, yet it is not uniform either in color or taſte; ſome being green, ſome of a dark brown hue; ſome ſweet, others inclined to acidity. The male trees yield only flowers; the females bear the fruit *. The palmetto, or dwarf palm, is common in Spain. It grows to the height of ten or fifteen inches; ſpreads in the manner of a fan its long thin leaves, in number fifty, which are made into brooms and ropes, and ſerve for the fattening of cattle; bears a reddiſh date like a plumb, and contains in its root about two pounds of pith, which is a favourite food of the peaſants †. Among many ſpecies of the oak is one, whoſe acorns are ſweet, are eaten as cheſnuts, and even preferred as an article of ſuſtenance to that fruit by the Spaniards ‡. The cork tree, which is reckoned one of the ſorts of oak, is ſtripped of its bark every four or five years as far as the inſide ſkin or white ſappy part, which in that period is again covered with new bark for another ſtripping. In ſome places the trees are ſtripped only every tenth year, and continue to yield during 150 years. This bark, firſt flattened by the preſſure of ſtones in water, and afterwards dried, is prepared for the different purpoſes to which cork is applied §. The ſmalleſt and moſt

* Townſend, vol. 2, page 261.
† Swinburne, page 78, and Dillon, page 326, 327.
‡ Dillon, page 324.
§ Dillon, page 323. Townſend, vol. 1. page 60.

remarkable of all the oak tribe, is that which bears the kermes, the coccum of the ancient Romans. This little tree commonly grows to the height of two or three feet, with leaves like thoſe of the holly. To its bark and leaves adheres the kermes, which gives the ſcarlet dye, and which, though an inſect, is commonly taken for a vegetable excreſcence, as it ſeems fixed to the tree in like manner as the gall, and is about the ſize of a pea, round, ſmooth, gloſſy, and rather black, or of a dark red, with a white cinereous down covering it. Theſe inſects, transformed by the courſe of Nature into a kind of huſk, are gathered in the ſouthern provinces, and ſent chiefly to Tunis and other parts of Barbary; the cochineal of America being more in requeſt for homeconſumption ‡.

The Algarrobo is a uſeful tree, "tender, yet requiring no attention; luxuriant, and commonly loaded with fruit, which is given to their cattle, not only to thoſe which work, but to their oxen, when they are to be fatted for the ſhambles. The pod is long, and contains many ſeeds abounding in ſaccharine matter. It is exceedingly pleaſant and nutritious. It is evergreen" §.

Spain abounds in fruits of an excellent flavour, among which are the orange, the lemon, the grape, the fig, the almond, and the olive, all which make a part of her exports. Even hazel nuts are an object of commerce; about 30,000 bags of this

‡ Dillon, from page 18 to page 32.

§ Townſend, vol. 1. page 118.

fruit

fruit being annually ſhipped from Catalonia, chiefly for Britain, each containing three buſhels, and coſting about twenty ſhillings at the place of embarkation *. Beſide brandy, ſeveral ſorts of Spaniſh wine are known in the Britiſh iſlands, as the Tent, which is made in the diſtricts about Alicante, about Rota near Cadiz, and in the vicinity of Malaga; the Mountain, which is the produce of rugged eminences lying northward of Malaga; and the Sherry, which is brought from Xeres in Andaluſia †. The oil, in which Spain in general abounds, has, notwithſtanding the goodneſs of the olive from which it is procured, a ſomewhat rancid, and to foreigners a diſagreeable taſte, by miſmanagement in the culture of the tree, or in the care of its fruit ‡. The mulberry tree flouriſhes in this fertile region; yet the quantity of ſilk annually produced in the whole peninſula, excepting Portugal, is ſaid to be only one million of pounds weight, of which 600,000 pounds are furniſhed by the ſmall province of Valencia §, whoſe ſilk is ſaid by ſome to be the fineſt of all in Spain; while others give the preference to that of Granada, which province, together with Murcia, ſeems to ſupply moſt of the remaining quantity.

"The mulberry of Valencia is the white, as being moſt ſuitable to a well watered plain. In

* Dillon, page 441. Townſend, vol. i. p. 96.

† Dillon, page 352 and 373.

‡ Bourgoanne, vol. ii. page 295, and Peyron, page 417.

§ Bourgoanne, vol. ii. page 315.

Granada they give the preference to the black, as thriving well in elevated ſtations, as more durable, more abundant in leaves, and yielding a much finer and more valuable ſilk. But then it does not begin bearing till it is twenty years of age. In this province they reckon that five trees ſhould produce two pounds of ſilk ‖."

Thyme, lavender, roſemary, and other aromatic herbs, grow in ſuch abundance in both mountains and vallies, that they are applied by the inhabitants to the heating of ovens and other culinary purpoſes *. A kind of graſs, or ruſh, called eſparto, which is ſo common as to cover a great part of Spain, is made not only into excellent mats and ropes, but alſo into fine linen †. The ſugar cane and cotton plant grow in the ſouth, but the culture of the former plant, formerly more extenſive, is at preſent extremely limited. The ſoil of Spain is alſo favourable to the production of flax, and furniſhes enough of hemp for home conſumption, the greater part of which is the growth of Granada ‡. Peculiar to the provinces of Valencia and Murcia § is ſaid to be the barilla, which makes a valuable article of exportation. It is an annual plant, riſing no more than four inches above ground, of a bluiſh green colour, and growing in large bu-

‖ Townſend, vol. ii. page 330.

* Dillon, page 38 and 282. Here, as in other caſes, I quote but one authority, when more might be adduced.

† Peyron, page 419.

‡ Bourgoanne, vol. ii. page 412.

§ Bourgoanne, vol. ii. page 293.

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ſhy tufts, with a fruit like barberries. In the ſame kind of proceſs as is purſued in the making of kelp, this plant, with its fruit and roots, is burned ſo as to form a hard vitrified maſs, which is uſed in the making of glaſs and ſoap and the bleaching of linen ‖. About a tun ready for exportation may be produced from an acre. The country which yields it extends about ſixty leagues in length and eight in breadth along the Mediterranean; and the quantity annually exported is about a hundred and fifty thouſand quintals, or near ſeven thouſand five hundred tuns *.

Good crops of rice are raiſed in Valencia and other provinces of the ſouth. The wheat is probably not ſurpaſſed by any in Europe; but maize or Indian corn is much more an object of culture, and is the kind of grain which is chiefly eaten by the peaſantry †. Inſtead of hay and oats, the food of the horſes is ſtraw and barley. Except in Gallicia and ſome other parts, where the flail is in uſe, the grain is trodden out by the feet of cattle, or parted from the ſtraw by a heavy inſtrument called the Trillo, ſtudded with flints, or furniſhed with bars of iron, and dragged over the ſheaves by beaſts of burden ‡. Potatoes are ſcarcely known, excepting a very ſweet ſort which is cultivated only in the country around Malaga, and the common

‖ Swinburne, page 138 and 141. Dillon, p. 469.

* Townſend, vol. ii. page 240.

† Dillon in ſeveral places. Alſo Dalrymple's Travels in Spain and Portugal.

‡ Dalrymple in ſeveral places. Townſend,

kind,

kind, or that which is known to the Iriſh, which is ſaid to be planted hardly any where but in Gallicia §.

Animals. Spain ſeems not to contain any peculiar ſpecies of animal. In the mountains of Andaluſia is the little quadruped called the gennet, which is ſaid to be found in no other part of Europe excepting the Turkiſh provinces ‖. Some bears, many wild cats, and great numbers of wolves, infeſt the mountainous tracts. The flocks are protected againſt theſe by the ſhepherd's dogs, large, fierce, and ſtrong; each armed with a collar ſet round with ſpikes to protect the neck from the jaws of the wolf. Deer, wild ſwine, and other game, are alſo found in the mountains. By reaſon of the uncultivated ſtate of the country, (for theſe inſects depoſit their eggs only in deſert places) locuſts are propagated, and in ſome years prove a plague to the ſouthern provinces. This peninſula is remarkable for aſſes of a large ſize. Its horſes, particularly thoſe of Andaluſia, are famous for beauty and ſpeed, but their breed is ſaid to be neglected in the preſent age, and their uſe almoſt ſuperſeded by the mule, which ſerves in their ſtead for the ſaddle and the draft. Animals of the cow-kind ſeem not very numerous, nor are

§ Dillon, page 352.

‖ Dillon, page 374. Alſo Carter's Journey from Gibraltar to Malaga. See the account of this animal by Buffon and Goldſmith. It is of the weaſel kind, large as a cat, but of a different ſhape, ſpotted with black on a red and grey ground, diffuſing an agreeable odor like that of civet, beautiful in its appearance, and uſeful, when tamed, to clear houſes of vermin.

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they kept in general on account of their milk, the uſe of which is little known in this country, particularly in Andaluſia and La Mancha, but merely for labour and for the ſlaughter *. In many places oxen are chiefly uſed for the plough and the cart, and in ſome parts, as in the Aſturias, butter is made by ſhaking the cream in a leathern bag, inſtead of churning †. The ſheep of the whole peninſula may amount to about fourteen millions, of which near five millions, called the merino flocks, or ſheep of the meſta, are ambulatory with reſpect to their management, and are by that mode of life continually kept in a mild temperature of air. In April they are conducted to high mountainous tracts toward the north, where they graze during the ſummer, and in September are removed to low plains in the ſouth, chiefly thoſe of Eſtremadura and Andaluſia, performing in each migration a journey of about 150 leagues, which they accompliſh in forty days. They are divided into flocks of commonly about 10,000 each. The number of ſhepherds, who attend both theſe and the ſtationary ſheep, have been calculated at 40,000 in all Spain. This country furniſhes the fineſt wool of Europe, all or moſt of which is procured from the ambulatory flocks. Its annual quantity is ſtated, beſide the coarſer ſorts, at a million of arrobas, of 25 pounds weight each, of which above half is exported waſhed, and the greater part of the reſt in the

* Swinburne, page 330.

† Townſend, vol. i. page 245, 273. vol. ii. page 189.

greaſe.

greaſe. Of the beſt ſort of that which is waſhed, about 160,000 arrobas are carried to the Britiſh ports of London and Briſtol. Ewes are reckoned to bear about five pounds of wool each, and the wethers eight ‡.

Foſſils. The mines of gold and ſilver, for which this peninſula was anciently ſo famous, have diſappeared, at leaſt are not worked, excepting a few of the latter, particularly that of Guadalcanal in Eſtremadura, which, now very much in a ſtate of decline, formerly yielded a vaſt revenue. Lead and copper are alſo drawn from the bowels of the earth in ſeveral places, and iron is raiſed in conſiderable quantities, particularly in Arragon, Biſcay, and the neighbouring parts. The mine of quickſilver at Almaden, in the country of La Mancha, the moſt ancient at preſent known in the world, produces annually above 5000 quintals of 100 pounds each, but has, together with the mine of Almadenejos, yielded 18,000 quintals yearly §. Nor is Spain deficient in foſſil ſalt, a whole mountain of which, a league in circuit and near 500 feet high, with an unknown depth below the ſurrounding ſoil, quite ſolid, hard, and free from any mixture of other mat-

‡ Dillon, from page 47 to 68. Townſend, vol. i. page 294, 295. Letters of the Bath Society. Bourgoanne, vol. i. from page 36 to 46. It is allowed in general that the extraordinary fineneſs of the wool is owing to the erratic life of the ſheep, but this is contradicted by Bourgoanne, from his own experience, whoſe authority, as he reſided eighteen years in Spain, ſeems to be deciſive.

§ For the mines of Spain, ſee ſeveral parts of Dillon's book.

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ter, rears its head at Cardona in Catalonia not far from Montſerrat ||. But beſide that great quantities of ſalt are made in different places round the coaſt from ſea-water admitted into the land and evaporated by the mere heat of the ſun, the earth is in many places impregnated with ſaline particles in an extraordinary degree. Near Alicante is a lake named the Mata, ſeparated by a high bank from the ſea, with which it has no viſible communication, and formed by torrents of rain water, which in winter fall from the mountains which bound it on the land-ſide. This water evaporating in ſummer, leaves a vaſt maſs of ſalt, of which 100,000 tuns are ſometimes exported in a year *. The air ſeems to abound in ſaline vapors, and therewith to impregnate the ſoil. Spain is ſuppoſed to be capable of ſupplying all the reſt of the world with ſaltpetre. This is extracted from the common ſoil, which after being deprived of its ſaltpetre, and again expoſed to the air, gives as great a quantity as before in the ſpace of a year, in ſome places even in leſs than a month †.

The commerce of this extenſive and fertile region is very diſproportionate to the bounties which Na- Commerce.

|| Dillon, from page 415 to 419.

* Dillon, page 387.

† Dillon, from page 43 to 45. Bourgoanne, vol. i. page 464. The ſaltpetre, however, made at Madrid on the king's account, is ſaid to coſt his majeſty twenty pence a pound, when he might purchaſe this article for three or four pence a pound from the Britiſh Eaſt India Company. This is one inſtance of numerous miſtakes of the ſame kind committed by nations and individuals.

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ture confers upon it. Its manufactures are ſcanty, and furniſh ſcarcely any thing for exportation. That of ſword-blades at Toledo, formerly ſo much in repute, is ſaid to be in a ſtate of revival ‡. That of gun-barrels at Barcelona ſeem ſtill to ſupport a degree of credit. The Gallicians are ſaid to make enough of linen for their own uſe §, and moſt of the ſilk produced in the peninſula, ſome ſay only one half, is manufactured at home. But of the manufactured goods of all kinds taken together, which are conſumed in this country, by much the greater part is imported, particularly woollen and linen cloths. Agriculture languiſhes. Great quantities of grain are brought from foreign countries. From a want of canals and navigable rivers, the ſuperfluities of one province cannot eaſily be conveyed to another, ſo that oil and wine, which are among the chief articles of internal commerce, are carried in leathern bottles on the backs of aſſes ‖. The foreign traffic is of a paſſive nature, the greater part of both exports and imports being conveyed in the ſhips of other European nations. The whole annual amount of the exports of Spain, excluſive of Portugal, is eſtimated at little more than 3,300,000 pounds ſterling. Great quantities of treaſure, to the value of above ſix millions of Britiſh pounds annually, are conſtantly brought from South America into the Spaniſh and Portugueſe ports, but moſt of this paſſes into the pockets

‡ Peyron, page 311 and 312.

§ Bourgoanne, vol. i. page 141.

‖ Bourgoanne.

of

of other Europeans, who furniſh goods for the American market, particularly the Britiſh, Dutch, and French nations, who by their induſtry have commonly the balance of trade in their favour, notwithſtanding the vaſt natural advantages which weigh againſt them in the oppoſite ſcale.

Dimenſions and area.

This great peninſula, when meaſured diagonally, ſtretches about 750 Engliſh, or 590 Iriſh miles in length, from Cape Saint Vincent in Portugal, to Cape Creus in Catalonia, and about 590 Engliſh, or above 460 Iriſh, from Cape Finiſterre in Gallicia, to Cape Martin in Valencia; but taken at a medium from north to ſouth, and from eaſt to weſt, it may be conſidered nearly as a ſquare of about 480 Engliſh, or near 380 Iriſh miles in length, and may contain in area, conſidered as a flat ſurface, without regard to its undulations, above 140 millions of Engliſh, or about 90 millions of Iriſh acres.

Population.

To this great extent of territory, ſituate in a genial climate, with a ſoil highly favoured by nature, the population but ill correſponds; the inhabitants of the whole peninſula probably not exceeding, perhaps not amounting to, thirteen millions. Their diſtribution in about 20,000 towns and villages ‖, beſide ſolitary houſes, is as inequable, as is the culture of the ſoil and induſtry of the people. In general too great a proportion of the inhabitants are contained in towns, and the country is quite unadorned by villas or ſeats of the gentry; the

Diſtribution of the people, and aſpect of the country.

‖ Zimmermann's Survey of Europe.

Spaniards

Spaniards having ſcarcely any reliſh for the pleaſures of a rural life *. This has in a great meaſure ariſen from the jealouſy of the court, which, to prevent the nobles from acquiring an influence among the people, and thereby riſing into importance, has aſſembled them round the throne, and obliged them to reſide under the eye of the ſovereign. The interior provinces wear but a gloomy and uninviting aſpect, preſenting to the eye of the traveller little elſe than barren rocky hills and mountains, naked brown plains, in which are a few ſcattered ſpots of imperfect cultivation, extenſive tracts arid and totally deſert, villages built of clay, and old towns in a declining ſtate, with ſuch numbers of ruins here and there diſperſed, that, in the opinion of a judicious traveller †, ruins form the ſtriking feature of this whole peninſula ‡. But the maritime parts have ſo great a ſuperiority over the reſt of this extenſive region, that the coaſt all around has been compared to a lace placed round an old garment §. The mountains of Biſcay by nature barren, are fertilized by their induſtrious inhabitants, who have rendered their little country the pleaſanteſt part of Spain. The hand of induſtry has alſo greatly improved the rugged face of nature in Catalonia, Navarre, the Aſturias, and Gallicia.

* Peyron, page 349. Bourgoanne, vol. ii. page 187, 188. Townſend, vol. i. page 147.

† Major Jardine.

‡ Dillon, page 296. Jardine, vol. ii. page 11, 12, 116, 123, &c.

§ Jardine, vol. ii. page 230.

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The laſt, though occupied for the greater part by bleak mountains, contains at leaſt a million of inhabitants, while the fertile province of Eſtremadura, which is larger by a fifth, is ſaid not to have in all above 100,000 *. The northern parts of Portugal and its coaſt are tolerably peopled. The rich provinces of Andaluſia, Granada, and Murcia, charm the ſpectator with fine proſpects; and, above all, the plains of Valencia diſplay ſuch beauty and luxuriant fertility, that travellers are at a loſs for words to expreſs the raptures which theſe glowing ſcenes inſpire †.

A few words are here to be ſaid concerning ſome of the moſt remarkable towns of this peninſula. In the province of New Caſtile, ſouth-eaſtward of the Guadarrama mountains, in an elevated bare plain of a melancholy and deſert appearance, and on the eaſtern bank of the Manzanares an influent ſtream of the Tagus, ſtands Madrid, the preſent capital, or ſeat of government, of the kingdom of Spain, of a form approaching the circular, a circumference of about ſeven miles, a population of about 160,000, and with ſtreets generally wide, tolerably ſtraight, clean, and well paved. The moſt elegant part of the town is a ſquare called the Plaza Mayor, 434 feet long, 354 broad, and much too high for theſe dimenſions. In the weſtern ſide of the city ſtands the new palace, alone and on an eminence, appearing at a diſtance rather like a citadel

Towns.

Madrid.

* Dillon, page 65, 345 and 346.

† Dillon, page 395, 398, &c.

than

than the manſion of a monarch: In the eaſtern, ſeated alſo on an eminence, is the old palace of Buen Retiro, now in a ſtate of decay, overlooking a noble public walk called the Prado, which is half a league in length, encloſed within the buildings of the city †. About twenty miles ſouthward of Madrid, in a low valley ſurrounded with bleak hills, at the conflux of the river Jarama with the Tagus, is the town of Aranjuez, with a pleaſant palace of the king of Spain, and the moſt charming groves and gardens, forming altogether a moſt beautiful whole, which has been compared to a fine picture ſet in a huge ugly frame ‡. This, the reſidence of the court in ſpring, and containing at that ſeaſon about 10,000 inhabitants, is, by reaſon of the almoſt intolerable heat concentrated from the hills around, almoſt abandoned in ſummer to the wild boars, deer, and other game, which are reſerved in vaſt numbers in the circumjacent country for the amuſement of the royal family §.

Aranjuez.

St. Ildefonſo.

The rural palace of Saint Ildefonſo may be alſo noticed here as an appendage of Madrid, though reckoning the windings of the road, it is ſituate above 50 Engliſh miles northward of that city. In this royal villa, which is ſaid to have coſt a ſum equal to ſeven millions ſterling, and which is deſcribed as a kind of terreſtrial paradiſe, the court reſides during the hot months; its ſituation being

† Bourgoanne, vol. i. from page 204 to 241. Dillon from page 68 to 84. Townſend, vol. i. page 160—177.

‡ Jardine.

§ Bourgoanne, vol. ii. from page 246 to 271.

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ſo elevated, with a polar aſpect, on the north-weſtern declivity of the Guadarrama mountains, in a deep receſs, expoſed only to the north winds, that in its gardens the roſes are not in blow till the end of July, nor ſtrawberries ripe till the beginning of September ||. The palace "occupies three ſides of a ſquare, the two wings of which being joined, each by a long range of buildings, deſigned for the king's retinue, and cloſed in at bottom by iron gates and rails, the whole form a beautiful and ſpacious area. The principal front, of 530 feet in length, is to the ſouth looking to the garden, and through its whole extent the apartments communicate with all the doors in the ſame line *." A ridge, which riſes to the ſouth, and falls to the eaſt and weſt, is occupied by the garden, indeſcribably delightful with its ſhaded walks, groups of ſtatues, and ſpouting fountains. Another manſion, where the court commonly ſpends about ſix weeks after it leaves Saint Ildefonſo, and which alſo contains an extremely wealthy monaſtery, is the Eſcurial, an immenſe pile of building, but of a dead and rather melancholy appearance, ſituate about twenty miles north-weſtward of Madrid, on the eaſtern aſcent of a chain of hills, which ſkirts the Guadarrama mountains on that ſide, in a deep receſs, expoſed only to the ſouth-eaſt wind. It is a quadrangular edifice, 740 feet long, 580 Eſcurial.

|| Dillon, from page 114 to 119. Bourgoanne, vol. i. from page 62 to 154.

* Townſend, vol. i. page 324.

broad,

broad, at leaſt 60 feet high to the roof all around, with a ſquare tower at each angle 200 feet high, the whole with its projections 2900 Spaniſh feet in circuit, and containing within it ſeveral courts and quadrangles. Erected by King Philip the Second, and dedicated to Saint Lawrence, it is ſuppoſed to have been intended to reſemble in its figure a gridiron reverſed, of which the ſpires of the four towers were to repreſent the feet. Its principal front faces weſtward to the mountains: That which is turned toward Madrid takes the form of the ſhort handle of a gridiron, and in this are the apartments in which the king lodges †.

Toledo. Toledo, in the province of New Caſtile, famous in the Mooriſh annals of Spain, and formerly ſaid to contain two hundred thouſand inhabitants, but now hardly twenty-five thouſand, is at preſent remarkable for its ſituation. "The Tagus paſſing between two granite mountains, and almoſt ſurrounding one of theſe, forms a peninſula, on which the city ſtands, appearing at a diſtance like a cone." The famous Alcazar of Toledo, once the palace of Mooriſh kings, is now a work-houſe for the poor. The cathedral is vaſt and magnificent, and contains an aſtoniſhing quantity of gold and ſilver in various forms, conſecrated to religion, and repoſited in it ‡.

Salamanca. Salamanca, ſituate in the province of Leon, on the river Tormes, whoſe waters flow to the Duero,

† Swinburne, from page 410 to 420. Bourgoanne, vol. i. from page 159 to 202. Townſend, vol. i. page 329.

‡ Townſend, vol. i. page 191—198.

with

with narrow, dirty, and thinly inhabited ſtreets, but with a great and elegant ſquare, is remarkable for its univerſity, the greateſt of the whole peninſula, and for the number of its religious edifices; for, while the number of its inhabitants amounts to but about 13,000, it contains, beſide a great cathedral, 25 pariſh churches, 25 convents of monks, and 12 of nuns, together with many other pious foundations §.

Burgos, containing about 10,000 inhabitants, the capital of Old Caſtile, irregularly built on the declivity of a hill, at the foot of which the little river Arlanzon, an auxiliar ſtream of the Duero, waſhes its walls and ſeparates the ſuburbs from the city, is famous for its ancient cathedral, one of the moſt magnificent and beſt preſerved of thoſe which are called gothic, viſible at a great diſtance, and in form exactly reſembling Yorkminſter ‖. Burgos.

On the northern ſide of the river Lobregat, with a harbour which has the advantage of a noble mole built all of hewn ſtone, and in a beautifully cultivated level country, which is backed on the weſtern ſide with an amphitheatre of hills, ſtands the wealthy trading city of Barcelona, the capital of Catalonia, of nearly a circular figure, four miles in circuit, with walls of brick, narrow and crooked, but well paved, ſtreets, lofty plain houſes, and a population of about 100,000, beſide that near Barcelona.

§ Bourgoanne, vol. ii. from page 515 to 529.

‖ Swinburne, from page 535 to 538. Dillon, page 137. Bourgoanne, vol. i. page 23, 24.

10,000 people more are contained in Barcelonetta, a town lately built of brick on the neck of land which runs into the Mediterranean, and forms the port. A ſpacious airy walk round the walls, with the incloſed gardens, and the beautiful views of the country around, contributes toward the making of Barcelona one of the moſt delightful cities in the world *. About three miles from the Mediterranean, on the weſtern ſide of the river Guadalaviar, with a bad harbour, or rather open road, and a population of about 90,000, ſtands Valencia, capital of the province which bears that name, with high decayed walls, a form almoſt circular, narrow, crooked, unpaved, and dirty ſtreets, and houſes of a ruinous appearance, but enjoying one of the moſt charming ſituations on earth, riſing majeſtically with its numerous ſlender ſpires amid foreſts of mulberry, olive, and other fruit trees, in an extenſive plain of luxuriant fertility bounded by mountains on the weſt †.

Valencia.

Murcia. On the northern bank of the river Segura, over which is a magnificent bridge, and in the midſt of an extenſive and beautiful vale, ſtands Murcia the capital of its province, conſpicuous from far by its lofty cathedral, containing about 60,000 inhabitants, and protected from the inundations of the river by a ſtrong dyke, twenty feet thick, as many

* Swinburne, from page 16 to 23, and 69. Peyron, from page 47 to 56. Townſend, vol. page 74—104.

† Swinburne, from page 97 to 107. Peyron, from page 114 to 123. Bourgoanne, vol. ii. p. 291, 303.

high,

high, extending many miles in length, and ſerving as a public walk to the citizens ‡.

On a bay of the Mediterranean, in a contracted valley ſurrounded on the land ſide with high rugged pointed mountains, is ſeated the commercial city of Malaga, on the ſide of a deep ravin, with high houſes, dirty ill-paved ſtreets, ſo narrow that many of them are hardly eight feet, and a population of near 50,000 ſouls §. Malaga.

At the confluence of two ſmall rivers, the Xenil and Dauro, which go to augment the Guadalquivir, and at the northern foot of the Sierra Nevada in the extremity of a delightful valley, ſtands the celebrated city of Granada, capital of the province thus named, built on two hills which are ſeparated by the Dauro, ſkirting the plain in a ſemicircular form, and inhabited by about 80,000 people. This city, which was moſt magnificent while in poſſeſſion of the Moors, is now ſadly fallen from its former glory, yet is ſtill altogether a charming retreat, and contains many monuments of Mooriſh antiquity, of which by far the moſt worthy of notice is the Alhambra, or ancient palace of the Mooriſh kings. The Alhambra, with ſome others buildings, crowns the double ſummit of a hill which ſtands between the two rivers, and conſiſts of a huge heap of buildings of a very ugly appearance on the outſide, and ſo huddled together as if they had never been intended to form one connect- Granada.

‡ Townſend, vol. ii. p. 252—257.

§ Townſend, vol. ii. page 161—171.

ed habitation; but ſurprizingly curious within, ſo as to ſeem, as it were, an enchanted labyrinth. On the ruins of ſome of the offices belonging to this aſſemblage of royal buildings, an admirably fine palace was erected, but never completely finiſhed, by the emperor Charles the Fifth, forming a perfect ſquare of 220 feet, and riſing 62 feet in height from the ground to the upper entablement ||.

Cordova. Cordova, in the province of Andaluſia, "is ſituate in a plain of great extent, which is bounded on the ſouth by ſwelling hills cultivated to their very ſummits, and on the north by a chain of rugged mountains, the continuation of the Sierra Morena. Through the midſt of the plain runs the Guadalquivir; and the whole country being well wooded, well watered, and well cultivated, cannot be ſurpaſſed either in riches or beauty." This city contains about 32,000 inhabitants. The great church of Cordova, once a moſque, is five hundred and ten feet long, four hundred and twenty broad, and its pillars, eight hundred in number, arranged in quincunx, appear like a grove of ſaplings *.

Gibraltar. Gibraltar, a town of Andaluſia, is of ſmall ſize, but very remarkable, as being in the poſſeſſion of a foreign power, and as having for five years ſucceſsfully reſiſted the united forces of Spain and France. Mount Calpe, a hill of rock, above two miles long, and about 1400 feet in perpendicular height, riſes

|| Swinburne, from page 147 to 151, and from 179 to 214. Peyron, from page 174 to 266. Townſend, vol. ii. page 190.

* Townſend, vol. ii. page 65.

abruptly

abruptly from a low narrow iſthmus which joins it to the main land, and running ſouthward into the ſtrait, which ſeparates Europe from Africa, terminates in what is called Europa Point. On the eaſtern ſide this rock is precipitous and almoſt inacceſſible, but is more declivous on the weſtern, at whoſe foot lies the town of Gibraltar, ſeparated by a bay two leagues broad from the town of Algeſiras, which ſtands oppoſite on the weſtern ſide of that bay. On this acceſſible ſide all art has been exerted to render Gibraltar impregnable, which has continued in the poſſeſſion of the Britiſh crown ſince it was taken by the Britiſh fleet in the year 1704†.

To Andaluſia alſo belongs the great commercial and wealthy city of Cadiz, the famous emporium, into which the vaſt wealth of the Spaniſh provinces in America is poured in exchange for the manufactured goods of Europe. This city is confined to rather a too ſmall portion of ground for the number of its inhabitants, which has been rated at from 80,000 to 140,000. It approaches a ſquare in its figure, has ſtrait, but rather narrow ſtreets interſecting each other at right angles, and lofty houſes with flat roofs covered with a white cement, and with moſtly, each of them, a turret and pillars round the parapet wall at top, which give the town a ſingular appearance. Its fine ſpacious bay, bend- Cadiz.

† See the deſcription of this fortreſs in Twiſſe's Travels in Spain and Portugal. Alſo the plan of Gibraltar in Bourgoanne, vol. ii. p. 453.

ing

ing almoſt in ſemicircular form, is cloſed on the ſouthern ſide by the iſle of Leon in ſuch manner as to form an inner gulph, the entrance of which, ſcarcely a mile broad, is defended by forts on both ſides called the Puntals. The iſle of Leon, connected to the continent by a bridge, flat, barren, and uncultivated, conſiſts of two peninſulas joined together by a narrow bank of ſand. In the northern peninſula is the city occupying its north-weſtern end ‡. The capital of Andaluſia is the famous city of Sevilla, of a circular form, with very old walls, which are about five miles and an half in circumference, and ſituate on the Guadalquivir which is navigable thence to the ſea, in an extenſive and beautiful plain. Though much in a ſtate of decline, ſince it ceaſed to be the center of the commerce which ſubſiſts between Spain and her wealthy colonies, it is ſtill accounted the ſecond city in the kingdom of Spain, and is ſuppoſed to be inhabited by above 100,000 people. Its ſtreets are narrow, crooked, and dirty; ſome of them ſo contracted that a man can touch the oppoſite ſides at once. The handſomeſt part is the Alameda, or great walk, in the center of the town, 600 yards long, 150 broad, planted with elms, and decorated with fountains and two ſtatues. Its cathedral is a vaſt gothic pile 420 feet long on the inſide, 273 broad, and 126 high, with a fine tower or ſteeple, called

Sevilla.

‡ Bourgoanne, vol. ii. from page 397 to 445. Swinburne, from page 230 to 242. Peyron, from page 287 to 292. Townſend, vol. ii. page 108.

la

la Giralda, at one angle, which makes a noble appearance, it being in height 350 feet, aſcendible by an inclined plain, broad enough to admit two horſemen abreaſt, and ſo eaſy of aſcent that a horſe may trot from bottom to top. On its top is a brazen image in form of a woman, which ſerves as a weathercock, turning with the ſmalleſt variation of the wind, though, together with a palm branch which it holds, it is near a tun and a half in weight §.

On the northern bank of the majeſtic Tagus, where that great river, or rather its mouth, is nine miles broad, and 10 or 15 miles above where it diſcharges its waters into the ocean, ſtands, built on a number of ſmall hills, Liſbon, the capital of the kingdom of Portugal, the greateſt emporium in Europe next after London and Amſterdam, the greateſt city of all the Spaniſh peninſula, and ſeemingly calculated from its ſituation, with reſpect to its noble harbour and other advantages, to be the capital of the peninſula. Almoſt entirely deſtroyed by an earthquake in the year 1755, it has long been in a ſtate of renovation on a plan, which, though noble and magnificent, is at the ſame time rather gigantic and barbarouſly great. The ſtreets large, regular, and moſtly ſpacious, interſect each other at right angles; but the houſes are too high, and the buildings in general ill proportioned, and injudiciouſly diſtributed. Containing pro- Liſbon.

§ Dillon, page 328, 329. Swinburne, from page 276 to 287. See alſo Hervey's and Twiſſe's Travels. Townſend, vol. ii. page 74.

bably

bably 250,000 inhabitants, and extending about a mile in breadth, it ſtretches in length at leaſt three miles, but, by reckoning the villages of Pedrouços and Belem, which are connected with the city by a continued ſeries of buildings, its extent along the beach will be found ſix or ſeven. At Belem is one of the palaces of the king of Portugal, and at Mafra, above 20 miles northward of Liſbon is another, which is a ſtupendous fabric, built in emulation of the king of Spain's eſcurial ||.

Coimbra. Coimbra, ſeated on the river Mondego, in a country beautified with olive and other fruit trees, is only to be noticed on account of its univerſity by far the greateſt in Portugal, and its number of people, which, though ſcarcely 12,000, makes it one of the moſt conſiderable of the Portugueſe towns in reſpect of population.

Oporto. Oporto, called alſo Porto, by much the moſt conſiderable city of Portugal next after Liſbon, and a town of great commerce, is ſituate in a country finely adorned with villas, on the declivity of a hill at the mouth of the Duero, and on the northern ſide of that river, which ſeparates the city from its principal ſuburb, and admits not a bridge to be thrown over it, by reaſon of the vaſt floods to which it is ſubject. This town may contain about 40,000 inhabitants, and is built on ſo uneven ground that the declivities of the ſtreets are generally too ſteep for wheel carriages, and the gentry are commonly

|| For Liſbon ſee Jardine, vol. ii. page 260, 261. Twiſſe's Travels. Alſo Coſtigan's Sketches of Portugal, a work, which, with much romance, contains much truth.

carried

carried in a kind of litter placed between two mules*. About 32 miles northward of Oporto ſtands Braga, a fine open country town, containing about 12,000 inhabitants, and remarkable only for being the ſee of an archbiſhop, and the third or fourth town of Portugal in reſpect of population †. Braga.

This extenſive and fertile peninſula, bearing anciently the names of Heſperia, Iberia, and Hiſpania, was in very early times to the Phenicians, Grecians and Carthaginians, chiefly on account of the gold and ſilver with which it then abounded, what America has been in later ages to the Spaniards and Portugueſe, the modern inhabitants of the ſame peninſula, an object of diſcovery, colonization, commerce, and conqueſt. Theſe diſcoverers found the aboriginal inhabitants a brave, but uncivilized people, divided into many diſunited, and mutually hoſtile tribes or communities, ſome of which were of the Celtic race, a race which ſeems once to have been diſperſed at leaſt through all the weſtern parts of Europe. Gades, now called Cadiz, is ſuppoſed to have been the firſt colony founded in this country by the Phenicians, who are ſaid to have extended their ſettlements along the ſouthern coaſt, and into the country as far as Cordova. The Phoceans, a Grecian people, planted colonies on the eaſtern coaſt, and ſeem to have advanced very far into the interior country. The Carthaginians, who are ſuppoſed to have held a footing in the peninſula for History and antiquities.

* Jardine, vol. ii. page 257. Coſtigan, &c.

† Jardine, vol. ii. page 257. Zimmermann's Tables, &c.

two

two centuries, made Carthagena, then called New Carthage, their principal place of arms, and the chief ſeat of their power in Spain. Advancing northward by ſucceſſive conqueſts, theſe powerful republicans at length, under the great Hannibal, completed the ſubjugation of almoſt the whole peninſula about 217 years before the Chriſtian æra. But a Roman army, landing the ſame year at Emporiæ, now called Ampurias, in Catalonia, began to diſpute with the Carthaginians the empire of Spain, and about twelve years after finally prevailing under Scipio, afterward ſirnamed Africanus, expelled them quite from the peninſula, ſeizing their laſt hold the city of Cadiz. For that time for above ſix centuries the Romans were maſters of Spain, excepting that a few of its tribes were not ſo immediately reduced to complete ſubjection, particularly the Cantabrians, who, inhabiting the mountainous tracts of Biſcay and the Aſturias, ſubmitted not to the Roman power until the reign of Auguſtus.

Under the dominion of the Romans, Spain was rendered one of the moſt flouriſhing provinces of their immenſe empire, and in a ſeries of ſo many ages, the country became almoſt entirely Roman, inſomuch that by far the greater part of the inhabitants appear to have totally loſt their ancient language, and to have adopted the Latin as their vernacular tongue. Perhaps no country in Europe, except Italy, contained ſo many monuments of Roman antiquity as this peninſula, but moſt of them have been deſtroyed or defaced from motives

motives of ſtupid bigotry by the modern Spaniards, who, viewing theſe venerable remains in no other light than as relics of Paganiſm, have accounted it meritorious to conſign them to oblivion ‡. Of the numerous Roman monuments which ſtill remain I ſhall mention only two.

In the province of Valencia, at the town of Morviedro the ancient Saguntum, which was reduced to ruins by the great Hannibal and afterward rebuilt by the Romans, is a theatre ſo far in a ſtate of preſervation, that a tolerable idea can be formed of its ſize and the diſtribution of its parts. It is built half way up the declivity of a long narrow hill of rock, on the top of which is an old Mooriſh caſtle of great dimenſions. The theatre is a complete ſemicircle about 246 feet in diameter, including the thickneſs of the walls, and was capable of containing commodiouſly 9000 ſpectators. With ſuch art was it conſtructed, that any ſentences, repeated where the ſtage once was, are heard at the top of the theatre altogether clearly and diſtinctly §. At Segovia in Old Caſtile is a ſtupendous Roman aqueduct ſtill entire, which has for at leaſt ſixteen centuries braved the ravages of time. At the rivulet, whoſe waters it conveys acroſs a deep valley into the city, it is ſupported only by a ſingle row of low arches, but augmenting as the ground declines, it is at the city-wall, where its two branches form an obtuſe angle,

‡ Swinburne, page 405.

§ Swinburne, page 93, 94. Peyron, from page 81 to 92. Bourgoanne, vol. ii. from page 344 to 350.

104 feet high, having the appearance of a bridge boldly thrown over a prodigious abyſs, and conſiſting of two rows of lofty arches one over the other, built of large ſquare ſtones without any appearance of cement, and over the upper row a hollow wall, which conſtitutes the channel of the water, covered with large oblong flags; its length, from the firſt low arches to the reſervoir in the town, 2400 Spaniſh feet or near half an Engliſh mile ||.

In the devaſtation of the Roman empire by the formidable bands of the fierce northern barbarians, Spain ſuffered a full ſhare of the general calamity, ravaged by the Vandals, who made their invaſion into this country about the year 409 of the Chriſtian æra, and more completely deſolated by the mutual ſtruggles between theſe invaders and the Goths, who conquered moſt of the peninſula from them in the year 415. A branch of the Gothic race, finally prevailing over all opponents, formed Spain into a feudal monarchy called the Kingdom of the Viſigoths or Weſtern Goths, which ſubſiſted about 130 years, until the Saracens, having conquered Barbary, invaded Spain in the year 712, and giving a fatal overthrow to the Goths in the battle of Xeres in Andaluſia, in which the Gothic monarch Roderigo loſt his life, ſoon over-ran with their uſual rapidity of conqueſt all the peninſula, excepting the rugged tracts of the Aſturias and Biſcay, whoſe mountains had before proved long a barrier for the protection

|| Swinburne, page 426, 427. Bourgoanne, vol. i. page 34, 35, 36.

of

of liberty even againſt the enormous preſſure of the Roman power.

The Saracen conquerors of Spain are denominated Moors by hiſtorians, as having come into the peninſula immediately from Morocco, the country of the Moors, and as being probably accompanied in their invaſion by many of that people. Spain, ſubdued by their arms, continued for ſome time a province of the immenſe empire of the Calif, until the Ommiad family, in whoſe hands was the ſceptre of the Saracen empire, being all to one maſſacred by the Abaſſides who uſurped their place, Abdoulrahman, the only ſurviving Ommiad, eſcaping into Spain with a few deſperate followers, found means to wreſt this province from the Abaſſide Califf, and to render himſelf an independent ſovereign, claiming the Califate as the rightful ſucceſſor of Mohammed, and fixing his court at Cordova in the year 759, a court which long continued one of the moſt ſplendid and elegant in the world. After a ſucceſſion of ſome able princes the poſterity of Abdoulrahman became a degenerate inactive race, who ſecluded themſelves from the cares of government, and left the whole adminiſtration of affairs to their vizirs or prime miniſters. This unmanly conduct cauſed the diſmemberment of the Mooriſh empire in Spain, and the deſtruction of Abdoulrahman's race; ſeveral powerful chiefs becoming independent princes, and dividing the country into many petty ſovereignties about the year 1014.

The diviſion of the Mooriſh power in Spain ſoon cauſed its declenſion, and in the end its ruin. Such high

high ſpirited Chriſtians as, on the conqueſt of their country by theſe Mohammedan invaders, had taken ſanctuary in the faſtneſſes of the northern mountains, formed there a petty ſtate under Don Pelayo about the year 720, which afterwards gained ſome acceſſions of ſtrength. Unable to prevail againſt the formidable power of the Moors while entire, they, on the diſunion and conſequent weakneſs of that people, commenced, with the aſſiſtance of other Chriſtian forces, a ſucceſsful, but fiercely conteſted war, in which the Moors were gradually driven from their poſſeſſions, and at laſt confined to the province of Granada. "As the Chriſtians made their conqueſts upon the Mahometans at various periods, and under different leaders, each formed the territory which he had wreſted from the common enemy, into an independent ſtate. Spain was divided into as many ſeparate kingdoms, as it contained provinces, and in each city of note a petty monarch eſtabliſhed his throne, and aſſumed all the enſigns of royalty. In a ſeries of years, however, by the uſual events of intermarriages or legal ſucceſſion, or conqueſt, all theſe inferior principalities were annexed to the more powerful kingdoms of Caſtile and of Arragon; and at length by the fortunate marriage of Ferdinand and Iſabella, the former the hereditary monarch of Arragon, and the latter raiſed to the throne of Caſtile by the affection of her ſubjects, all the Spaniſh crowns were united, and deſcended in the ſame line *," excepting that

* Robertſon's Introduction to his Hiſtory of Charles the Fifth.

Portugal

Portugal ſtill remained a ſeparate monarchy, and the Mooriſh kingdom of Granada retained its independence until the beginning of the year 1492, when it ſubmitted on certain conditions to the united forces of Ferdinand and Iſabella. Theſe conditions were inhumanly violated, and this ſtill numerous remnant of the Moors either baniſhed, burned, or forcibly converted to a feigned profeſſion of the Romiſh religion; which event, with many other inſtances, tends to demonſtrate that no confidence can ſafely be placed in the moſt ſolemn covenants, made for the protection of the rights of conſcience, with bigots of a different perſuaſion.

On the conqueſt of Granada the Spaniſh peninſula became divided, as it now is, into two ſeparate and independent, but very unequal kingdoms, Spain† properly ſo called, and Portugal. Diviſion.

SPAIN, PROPERLY SO CALLED,

Containing in area above one hundred and twenty millions of Engliſh, or about ſeventy-ſix millions of Iriſh acres, and inhabited by about eleven millions of ſouls, is divided into the following fourteen provinces, almoſt all of which are ſtiled kingdoms by the Spaniards; Gallicia, the province of the Upper and Lower Aſturia, Biſcay including Guipuſcoa and Spain proper. Diviſion.

† By Spain properly ſo called was formerly ſignified only the country comprehending the two Caſtiles, but as ſo narrow a limitation of the word is no longer neceſſary, it is here uſed to ſignify all the parts of the Spaniſh peninſula which conſtitute the Spaniſh monarchy, in contradiſtinction to Portugal.

Alava,

Alava, Navarre, Arragon, Catalonia, Valencia, Murcia, Granada, Andaluſia, New Caſtile, Old Caſtile, Leon, and Eſtremadura.

Government. The government of Spain is an abſolute and hereditary monarchy; abſolute, notwithſtanding ſome form and ſhadow of liberty, and privileges which ſtill ſeem to be poſſeſſed by ſome of the provinces; and hereditary, notwithſtanding that the kings appear to have claimed a right of bequeathing the kingdom by teſtament. The inheritance deſcends to the eldeſt in the male line, or, in caſe of its failure, the eldeſt in the female; but, by a law made in the year 1715, females are excluded from the ſucceſſion until after the extinction of the whole male line. The king is never crowned, but, inſtead thereof, is inſtalled by receiving into his hand the ſword of ſtate. According to the pompous manner of the Spaniſh nation, he ſometimes enumerates a multitude of titles; but that by which he is chiefly diſtinguiſhed is the appellation of the Catholic King, a title conferred by the Pope on Ferdinand of Arragon who conquered Granada. The ſignature of the Spaniſh monarch is only, I the King, without mentioning his name. His eldeſt ſon, or heir apparent of the kingdom, is ſtiled Prince of Aſturias; the reſt of his ſons Infantes, and his daughters Infantas.

The power of the Spaniſh monarchs was formerly circumſcribed within very narrow limits by the Cortes, or parliaments of the two great diviſions of the monarchy, Caſtile and Aragon. Theſe Cortes were compoſed of the repreſentatives of the nobility,

the prelates, and the deputies of the cities. From the want of union among themſelves, Charles the Fifth, emperor of Germany and king of Spain, the immediate ſucceſſor of Ferdinand of Arragon, found means to depreſs this great national aſſembly of Caſtile, and to convert it into what might better be called a junto of the ſervants of the throne than a repreſentative body of the nation. His ſucceſſor Philip the Second reduced the cortes of Arragon to a ſimilar degraded ſtate, by the aſſiſtance of the Caſtilians, who had already loſt their liberty; ſlaves being fit inſtruments to reduce others to ſlavery. The cortes, deprived of their power, fell at length into diſuſe, and are never now aſſembled, except at the acceſſion of a new ſovereign to the throne, upon which occaſion they are convened, to adminiſter to him an oath in the name of the nation, and to ſwear to him fidelity. For the ſake of form they are conſulted in certain caſes without being convoked, the members correſponding among themſelves without aſſembling. Yet a faint image of them remains in an aſſembly, which conſtantly reſides at Madrid, under the name of deputies of the kingdoms. This was intended to be a permanent committee of the cortes, and to watch over the adminiſtration of that part of the taxes which is called millones. The members are changed every ſix years, and are eight in number, ſix being nominated jointly by the Caſtilian provinces, one by the united ſuffrages of Catalonia, and the iſland of Majorca, and one by the regencies of Valencia and Arragon. Their power is merely nominal. By virtue of their places they

are members of the council of finance, through which the ſovereign communicates to the nation the neceſſity of any new tax; and the approbation, which they are ſuppoſed to give to the royal reſolution, is a ſhadow of the conſent of the cortes, without which in former times taxes could not be levied. But the cortes are at preſent only a name, and the ordinances promulgated from the throne have the ſame authority, as if they were fully ratified by theſe national aſſemblies.

The nobility of Spain who once formed ſo powerful a part of the cortes, but, by aſſiſting the regal power to cruſh the commons, and thereby depriving themſelves of their ſupport, moſt deſervedly loſt their own liberty in the end *, are ſtill, in reſpect of eſtates and lofty titles, a great and ſplendid body. Immediately next in rank after the ſons, grandſons, and nephews of the ſovereign, are the grandees. "Theſe are divided into three claſſes,

* Oppoſite to this was the conduct of the Engliſh nobility, and followed by oppoſite effects. They invited the commons to liberty, and by their aſſiſtance ſecured their own. It would ſurprize a Britiſh nobleman to ſee with how little reſpect the Spaniſh nobility are treated by the ſervants of the crown. "But under a deſpotic government the great lords muſt ſubmit to be treated with contempt. If they will be reſpected, they muſt be free; and if they will be free, they muſt be contented that the people ſhould be ſo too; becauſe liberty, if not equally extended to every order in the ſtate, muſt in time be loſt. This truth, founded on obſervation, and confirmed by the experience of all nations, is a truth of all others the leaſt pleaſing to the great; a truth, the force of which is ſeldom felt till it comes too late to be of ſervice." Townſend, vol. i. page 209.

differing

differing from each other by ſuch trifling diſtinctions as are ſcarcely worth notice. All the grandees of Spain, of whatever claſs they may be, are covered in the preſence of the king, and have the title of excellence: In theſe are comprehended all their prerogatives †." But the privilege of being covered in the royal preſence on all occaſions belongs not to all grandees. Some enjoy it only on their firſt reception, and when they accompany his majeſty in any ceremony. Nor is this honour peculiar to their order. They have it only in common with ſome generals of monaſtic orders, and other perſons of high employments in the ſtate, who during the continuance of their dignity rank with the grandees. Some titles of grandees become extinct at the death of the poſſeſſor. Thoſe which are hereditary deſcend by right of primogeniture, the younger ſons of a duke, count, or marquis, having in general no ſuch title, but only that of don, the diſtinctive appellation of a gentleman. But not all who are ſtiled count or marquis are grandees. Many ſuch are merely conſidered as bearing titles of Caſtile, which titles only prove the favour of the ſovereign, not an illuſtrious race, which alone can conſtitute what is accounted nobility in Spain, though the king may exalt from a lower to a higher rank. As the rank of grandee

† Bourgoanne, vol. i. p. 90. It may here be obſerved that the account given of the Spaniſh government in this place is obtained from the peruſal of the hiſtories of Spain, and the writings of ſome travellers, particularly Bourgoanne, a great part of whoſe firſt volume is occupied by this ſubject.

gives the title of excellence, ſo the titles of Caſtile confer on thoſe who bear them the appellation of vueſtra ſenoria, or your lordſhip. Between theſe two is a third, that of uſſia illuſtriſſima, or moſt illuſtrious lordſhip, which is given to prelates and great magiſtrates.

The hidalgos, or hijos dalgo, of Spain, are gentlemen, or rather knights, by virtue of their deſcent, their blood being accounted noble, though they are inferior in rank to the grandees. They are numerous and enjoy many privileges, as an exemption from the torture, from impriſonment in jails, and from certain taxes paid by the commons; and both among theſe and the titular nobles, the female tranſmits the honors and privileges of her anceſtors to her huſband and her children. Many of this equeſtrian order muſt be poor; their number being ſo great in the northern provinces, that in Aſturia the hidalgos are near a third of the inhabitants: but the caſe is different in the ſouthern provinces, particularly Granada, where not the three hundredth part are hidalgos ‡.

Of the ſix orders of knighthood which ſubſiſt in Spain, and of all of which the king is grand maſter, none belongs excluſively to grandees, but all are open to ſuch perſons as are of what is accounted noble blood. The moſt diſtinguiſhed of theſe orders is that of the golden fleece. Next follow the four military orders of San Jago, Calatrava, Monteza, and Alcantara; the three firſt diſtin-

‡ Townſend, vol. ii. page 206.

guiſhed

guiſhed by a red ribbon, and the laſt by a green; all founded in the times of the cruſades. The laſt is the order of Charles the Third, dedicated to the conception of the bleſſed virgin.

Beſide the permanent committee repreſentative of the cortes, are the occaſional deputies of Navarre and Biſcay, which deputies have no connection with the cortes, but are merely deputed by theſe privileged provinces for the tranſaction of ſome temporary buſineſs with the monarch or his miniſters. Theſe provinces ſtill enjoy the appearance of liberty, being permitted to make their own laws, regulate their own internal concerns, and raiſe their own taxes in what manner they think proper §. But though the taxation of theſe provinces appears to be voluntary, the demands of the court muſt not be refuſed, and their ſhadow of liberty is liable to be diſpelled at the breath of a powerful monarch.

The will of the ſovereign is carried into execution by ſeveral permanent bodies under the name of councils, to which are committed the interpretation and cuſtody of the laws. "The council of Caſtile holds the firſt rank among the councils and tribunals of the kingdom. It is at once a council of adminiſtration which has the inſpection of all the interior operations of government, and a ſovereign tribunal which has an excluſive cognizance of certain cauſes, and in certain caſes receives appeals from the other tribunals ‖." "The oldeſt members

§ Jardine, vol. ii. page 9. Bourgoanne, vol. i. page 12. Dillon, page 180.

‖ Bourgoanne, vol. i. page 265, 266.

of

of this council form what is called the Camara. This is properly the privy council of the monarch, and at the ſame time a ſovereign tribunal for certain cauſes. It is alſo the council which iſſues all acts or patents of royal favour. All places in the magiſtracy, and all conſiſtorial benefices, are conferred by its means. It recommends to his majeſty, through the medium of his miniſter of favour and juſtice, three perſons to fill them, and the king chooſes one of the three *. Alſo for the adminiſtration of juſtice, Spain is divided into two chanceries, thoſe of Granada and Valladolid, which have an excluſive cognizance of certain cauſes. Beſide theſe are eight audiences, without reckoning the particular tribunal of Navarre, which has the title of Royal Council. The four audiences for the throne of Arragon are thoſe of Saragoſſa, Barcelona, Valencia, and Majorca; and for the throne of Caſtile thoſe of Seville, Corunna, Oviedo, and the Canaries. The principal difference between the chanceries and the audiences is, that the former act in the king's name like the council of Caſtile. Each chancery and each audience has a criminal court, which definitively pronounces ſentences on criminals, and cauſes them to be executed †."

The magiſtrates and officers diſtributed throughout Spain for the diſpenſing of juſtice and execution of the laws, are moſtly called Alcaldes. Of

* Bourgoanne, vol. i. page 275, 276.

† Bourgoanne, vol. i. page 268, 269, 270.

theſe

theſe we find five ſorts. The Alcaldes de Corte form a chamber at Madrid, and each member preſides over a diſtrict of the town. Under each of theſe is an Alcalde de barrio, a kind of local magiſtrate, who watches over the preſervation of public order within the extent of his juriſdiction. In the other towns and villages are eſtabliſhed the Alcaldes mayores, or Corregidores, who were formerly triennial, but lately made ſexennial magiſtrates; the Alcaldes ordinarios, who are appointed annually, and judge in the firſt inſtance where no Corregidore can be found, or where one is found, have cognizance of civil cauſes in conjunction with him, while the latter acts alone in matters of police and adminiſtration; and the Alcaldes Pedaneos, who are taken moſtly from among the common people, and are a kind of conſtables, charged with the arreſting of delinquents, and with the execution of the orders of the Corregidors. Theſe offices are not exactly the ſame in all the municipalities. In general the Corregidor reſembles the mayor of a Britiſh corporation, the regidores aldermen or burgeſſes, and the Alguazil mayor the conſtable of a hundred.

That which is called the civil or the Roman law, contained in the celebrated pandects of Juſtinian, though frequently conſulted in practice, has in ſtrictneſs of ſpeech no force in Spain, whoſe only authentic laws, according to which juſtice is adminiſtered, are regiſtered in the codes publiſhed by the ancient kings; to which are joined edicts of the

the later monarch ‡. The infernal practice, ſo conformable to the genius of deſpotiſm, of forcing confeſſions by torture, is far from being as yet aboliſhed in this monarchy. As the provinces of Spain were formerly ſeparate kingdoms, the local uſages and laws are not the ſame in all. The laws of many provinces are peculiarly favourable to the ſofter ſex, and too favourable they cannot be, provided that they be rightly modelled. "If the wife complains of ill treatment from her huſband, he, on her ſole evidence, is confined in priſon; and, ſhould ſhe declare on oath that he had beaten her, the puniſhment would be yet more ſevere §." "The property of the huſband and wife are perfectly diſtinct. As long as ſhe lives, no one can take it from her, and when ſhe dies, it paſſes to her children; or, ſuppoſing it to be entailed, it devolves immediately to her eldeſt ſon, who, at the age of twenty-one, or ſooner if he marries, takes poſſeſſion even though his father ſhould be living ‖."

The adminiſtration of the affairs of ſtate is divided into ſix departments, commonly diſcharged by ſix perſons ſeverally, whom the king ſometimes conſults conjointly united in a committee. The miniſter of foreign affairs is in many reſpects the directing miniſter, and is ſtiled ſecretary of ſtate. The miniſter of war is preſident of the council of war, which is rather a tribunal than a board of ad-

‡ Bourgoanne, vol. i. page 283, 284, 285.
§ Townſend, vol. ii. page 280.
‖ Townſend, vol. ii. page 284.

miniſtration.

miniſtration. The marine miniſter prepares the marine ordonnances for the ſanction of the ſovereign. The miniſter of finances, beſide other powers, is preſident of the council of finance. The miniſter of the Indies has a moſt extenſive department, in him being centered the civil, military, eccleſiaſtical, and financial government of all the immenſe regions of America which are under the Spaniſh dominion. The miniſter of favour and juſtice has his department in the judiciary and eccleſiaſtical affairs, many places in both being conferred through him *.

The whole annual amount of the revenues of the king of Spain, ariſing not only from his European dominions, but alſo from the immenſe territories ſubject to his government in America, and elſewhere, ſeems to fall ſhort of five millions of pounds ſterling, deducting the expences of their management and collection, and the charge of maintaining the foreign ſettlements whence a part of them is ſuppoſed to be derived, though it is ſaid from the beſt authority that no direct revenue at all accrues to Spain from her colonies; while the national debt is near nine millions, and the ſum total of the money in circulation in a kingdom, which boaſts the moſt extenſive and wealthy foreign poſſeſſions in the world, is ſuppoſed not to amount to 17 millions, or rather, falls very far ſhort of that ſum. To the council of finance belongs the ſupreme direction of affairs which concern the revenues. Theſe, however various and complicated, Revenue.

* Bourgoanne, vol. i. from p. 123 to 128.

have

have been reduced by a late writer under two heads, the general and provincial revenues. The firſt ariſe chiefly from duties paid at the frontiers on merchandize entering or going out of the kingdom. In theſe are included the profits ariſing from the monopolies of ſalt and tobacco, both of which are allowed to be ſold only on the king's account, and in the management of the latter of which 70,000 perſons are ſaid to be employed. Of the provincial revenues one main part are the millones, a tax on oil, meat, vinegar, candles, and other neceſſary articles of conſumption. Another, called the alcavala, is a tax of 14 per cent. but not ſtrictly levied according to the value, on all things bought and ſold; and, to mention only one more, another is a voluntary tax, to which however every Spaniard muſt ſubject himſelf, leſt his orthodoxy ſhould be ſuſpected, ariſing from the ſale of indulgences, which were originally, in the time of the Cruſades, granted by the Pope to all Spaniards who ſhould, by perſonal ſervice or otherwiſe, contribute to the war againſt the Mohammedans, and which are ſtill continued, and aſſigned to the king. This coſts each good Catholic about $7\frac{1}{2}d.$ and raiſes above 187,000 pounds to the ſovereign. To avoid the ſtagnating influence of the alcavala, and other taxes, which by the mode of impoſition are deſtructive of induſtry, the province of Catalonia has compounded, and, though it pays twice as much in proportion as other provinces, the burden is far leſs galling †.

† For an account of the Spaniſh revenues, ſee Bourgoanne, vol. i. from p. 354 to 434. Townſend, vol. i. p. 355—382.

The

The land forces of Spain ſeem not to exceed 80,000 men in time of war. By the lateſt authentic accounts the infantry conſiſts of 44 regiments, which, if complete, would contain 60,000 men, but not much above half the number could be produced for actual ſervice, beſide the Spaniſh and Walloon guards, which ought to conſiſt of 8200. If the regiments of cavalry were full, Spain would have about 13,000 horſe, but the real number ſeems not to be more than 8000. The eſtabliſhed militia is diſtributed in the provinces which compoſe the kingdom of Caſtile in contradiſtinction to that of Arragon. It is aſſembled one month in the year, each regiment in the diſtrict to which it belongs. All the regiments, 42 in number, muſt be always complete, and form altogether a body of about 30,000 men ‡. Forces.

The armed naval force of this monarchy has of late conſiſted of above 60 ſhips of the line of battle, of from 58 guns to 100 and upwards each, and about the ſame number of frigates and other veſſels of inferior force. This navy is divided into three departments, whoſe ſtations are the ports of Ferrol, Carthagena, and Cadiz. Beſide a body of marine ſoldiery, 12,000 in number, who ſerve on board the ſhips, the ſeamen retained for the manning of theſe royal fleets, are, according to the regiſters, 50,000,, but in reality leſs than 40,000 §. From theſe accounts it appears that the whole force

‡ Bourgoanne, vol. i. page 442 to 457.

§ Bourgoanne, vol. ii. from page 1 to 24.

of

of Spain both by land and ſea, even in the time of war, ſcarcely can exceed 130,000 men.

Foreign poſſeſſions.

Were it not for the political ſyſtem of Europe, which affords to its ſeveral ſtates a conſiderable degree of ſafety, ſuch a force would be quite inadequate to the protection of the foreign poſſeſſions of this kingdom, poſſeſſions widely ſcattered, immenſe in extent, rich in the productions of the ſoil, and moſtly abounding in the precious metals. On the coaſt of Barbary, Spain poſſeſſes the fortreſſes of Ceuta, Oran, Melilla, and Maſalquivir; among the African iſlands, the Canaries; among the Aſiatic, the Philippines and Ladrones; in North-America, the vaſt regions of Eaſt and Weſt Florida, Louiſiana, California, New and Old Mexico; in South-America, the no leſs extenſive countries of Terra Firma, Peru, Chili, La Plata, and part of Guiana; and among the American iſlands, Juan Fernandes, Cuba, Porto Rico, above half of Hiſpaniola, the iſles of Margareta, Tortuga, and ſome others.

Religion.

The religion of Spain is the Roman Catholic, eſtabliſhed on principles the moſt intolerant imaginable, no perſons in the leaſt ſuſpected of entertaining opinions of a different nature, though outwardly conforming in practice, being ſuffered to live in any part of the Spaniſh dominions, excepting a few foreigners reſiding in ſea-port towns on account of commerce. In order effectually to enforce the uniformity of religion, an eccleſiaſtical court of inquiſition has been eſtabliſhed, and has ſubſiſted in its preſent form above two centuries in this

this country. The modes of procedure in this court, denominated by an extraordinary abuſe of language the Holy Office, are conformable to the ungenerous and inhuman end of its inſtitution. It employs a multitude of ſpies and informers, ſome ſay 20,000 in number, conducts by its officers ſecretly to priſon the perſons againſt whom information is given, and at the ſame time ſequeſters their whole property to its own uſe; brings them to a private and moſt unfair trial in the receſſes of its priſons, neither ſuffering any friend to approach them, nor permitting them to know what crime is laid to their charge, nor who are their accuſers, but endeavouring to enſnare them by inſidious queſtions, and, if that proves ineffectual, forcing a confeſſion by the torture; and laſtly, on conviction thus procured, conſigning them alive to the flames. It muſt be acknowledged, that the light of ſcience and humanity, which has long been gradually ſpreading over other parts of Europe, has of late forced ſome faint rays into this benighted realm of bigotry and ſuperſtition, and government has interfered to check the ſanguinary rage of this infernal tribunal, which pretends to promote the mild religion of Chriſt by the moſt antichriſtian means, ſo that by ſuch interference the unhappy victims of its inſidious cruelty are far leſs numerous, and meet with leſs terrible puniſhments, in general, than formerly; yet what are we to think of a nation, in which ſo lately as the year 1780, a woman was burned alive at Seville for ſorcery and witchcraft by the ſentence of this

this tribunal ‖! Under the ſupreme court of inquiſition eſtabliſhed at Madrid, at the head of which is the grand inquiſitor, are 18 ſubordinate tribunals in the ſeveral provinces of the monarchy; but the ſentences of theſe have no force, until they are confirmed by the ſupreme court.

In general the religious eſtabliſhments in Spain, a country of ſupreme bigotry, are enormous. The archbiſhops are eight in number, the biſhops 46. The revenues of many of theſe prelates are exceſſive; the richeſt prelacies in the world, next after the eccleſiaſtical princes of Germany, being found in Spain. The revenue of the archbiſhop of Toledo, who is ſtiled primate, is rated at above 10,000 pounds, that of the archbiſhop of Valencia at above 40,000, that of the archbiſhop of Sevilla at 33,000, that of the archbiſhop of Granada at 25,000, and that of the biſhop of Malaga at 16,5000 *. But the court has lately adopted the ſalutary meaſure of reducing, by the ſubduction of a third of their value, not only the biſhoprics, but alſo the inferior benefices, by ſaddling them with penſions, donations to hoſpitals, and other charges of the like nature. By an agreement made in the year 1753 between this court and that of Rome, all eccleſiaſtical dignities, except 52 of an inferior value,

‖ Bourgoanne, vol. i. page 338. For an account of the Inquiſition, ſee this author, vol. i. from page 306 to 352.

* To give inſtances of poorer ſees, the biſhop of Oviedo has but 6600 pounds yearly, the biſhop of Tortoſa 4400, the biſhop of Valladolid 5000, the archbiſhop of Tarragona 4000, and the biſhop of Leon 3300.

which

which remain in the donation of the Pope, on condition that they be given only to Spaniards, are conferred by the king †, who has thereby in his gift, beſide a multitude of inferior benefices, 92 prelacies; for, together with the 54 in Spain, 38 are eſtabliſhed in the foreign dominions of this monarchy; ſix archbiſhops and 28 biſhops being placed over the church of Spaniſh America, and one archbiſhop and three biſhops over that of the Philippine iſlands.

The number of eccleſiaſtical perſons, or perſons bound by vows of celibacy, in Spain is ſuppoſed to amount to 200,000, of which about half are monks and nuns, diſtributed in near 9000 convents, many of which are extremely wealthy, to the general impoveriſhment of the nation. For inſtance, the annual revenue of the monaſtery of the Eſcurial is 50,000 pounds ‡, and about two-thirds of all the lands in the province of Gallicia belonging to the monks and clergy §. Among the places of pilgrimage, or religious reſort, in Spain, ſimilar to the Italian Loretto, are Compoſtella, capital of Gallicia, and Saragoſſa, capital of Arragon. In the former, on the altar of the church of Saint James, whoſe body is pretended to have been buried here, ſtands the image of that ſaint, to which vaſt numbers of devotees reſort, ſome of whom make valuable preſents to the holy ſhrine, ſo that the ſacred

† Bourgoanne, vol. i. from page 288 to 305. Swinburne, page 338.

‡ Townſend, vol. i. page 330.

§ Bourgoanne, vol. i. page 302.

treaſure

treaſure dedicated to the ſaint is ſaid to be of a prodigious amount. A like object of pilgrimage and religious donation is an image of the Bleſſed Virgin placed on a marble pillar with a little Jeſus in her arms, in the church of Nueſtra Senora del Pilar in Saragoſſa ‖.

Literature.

In a nation enſlaved at once by civil and religious tyranny, which fetters the active powers, and repreſſes the generous effuſions of the ſoul, the ſtate of literature muſt neceſſarily be very low. No books are permitted to be publiſhed in the kingdom, nor imported from abroad, which contain ſuch liberal ſentiments and information as might tend to enlighten the minds of the people, and thereby render them leſs fit ſubjects for the yoke of thraldom impoſed on them *. Near 30 univerſities are enumerated in the Spaniſh dominions, among which are thoſe of Salamanca, Sevilla, Valladolid, Saragoſſa, and Toledo; ſome of which have a great reſort of ſtudents, that of Salamanca having com-

‖ "Whenever the nation ſhall be reduced to the neceſſity of doing what the French have done, what amazing wealth, now ſtagnating and uſeleſs, will by circulation become productive!" Townſend, vol. ii. page 314.

* The Academy of Hiſtory at Madrid, highly pleaſed with Dr Robertſon's Hiſtory of America, unanimouſly admitted the author a member of their academy, and began to tranſlate the book into Spaniſh; yet the court afterwards prohibited the publication and importation of the work, notwithſtanding that its excellent author ſpeaks quite too favourably of the murderous bands of Spaniſh adventurers, who butchered ſuch multitudes in the New World. See this tranſaction in Peyron, from page 320 to 338.

monly

monly above 3000, and that of Valladolid above 2000†: but the main object of ſtudy in them all is the falſe philoſophy of Ariſtotle and the ſchoolmen, which affords a barren field for the exerciſe of the mind, whence no real knowledge is acquired. To give a dry catalogue of the names of Spaniſh writers could contribute but little to the reader's information, and to give a character ſeverally of their writings would be quite diſproportionate to the extent of this work. For above a century learning has ſcarcely received any improvement in this country‡. With the allowance of a few exceptions, the ſtile of the Spaniſh writers is extravagantly hyperbolical and bombaſtic; and the ears of the nation, vitiated by the affected repetition of ſonorous words, can find no grace in language which ſpeaks rather to the underſtanding than to the ſenſe. The ſtyle of the Spaniſh theatre is quite barbarous. The compoſitions exhibited in their play-houſes are contrary to all good taſte, and are of ſuch a nature as to encourage immorality and inſult modeſty. The prompter, with a book in one hand, and a candle in the other, runs backward and forward behind a thin curtain, through which he is plainly ſeen by all the ſpectators, reading the parts aloud. Even in the beſt theatres of a late erection the voice of this general aſſiſtant is heard almoſt as plainly as thoſe of the actors.

† Townſend, vol. i. page 230, 304.

‡ For the ſtate of the Spaniſh literature, ſee Bourgoanne, vol. i. from page 243 to 256, and vol. ii. from page 197 to 243. Peyron, from page 370 to 394.

Inhabitants.

The inhabitants of Spain, collectively ſignified by the name of Spaniards, differ very much among themſelves in the different provinces, as being deſcended from various nations, ancient Iberians, Goths, Moors, and many others. In ſome parts of the kingdom this diverſity of origin is forcibly marked by a diverſity of language, that of Catalonia and that of Biſcay being each entirely different from what is called the Spaniſh or Caſtilian, a language whoſe main ſource is the Latin, ſonorous and majeſtic, viciouſly pompous, yet abounding in natural beauties, and ſpoken with uncommon purity, dignity, and politeneſs, even by the peaſantry, and with very little variation, throughout the two Caſtiles, Leon, Eſtremadura, Granada, and Murcia §. With reſpect to manners and exterior form the moſt ſtriking diſtinctive marks are ſaid to be found in the Andaluſians, Caſtilians, and Gallicians. The Gallicians are obſerved to be of a ſhort ſtature, and to bear a reſemblance to the peaſantry of ſome of the French provinces, particularly Auvergne ‖, and the Andaluſians are ſaid to have a leſs likeneſs to the Caſtilians than to the French of Gaſcoigne *. But however diſtinct among themſelves the inhabitants of the different provinces may be, a participation of the ſame religion and government, with a mutual intercourſe, has in length of time created a general ſimilarity.

§ Jardine, vol. ii. page 97.

‖ Jardine, vol. ii. page 31. Bourgoanne, vol. ii. page 122.

* Bourgoanne, vol. ii. page 122.

The

The Spaniards in general have black or dark hair, large black ſparkling eyes, ſtrong features, a certain regularity and gracefulneſs of countenance forcibly expreſſive, a more ſwarthy complexion than moſt other Europeans, a meagre and ſallow viſage, a middle ſtature, and a ſlender thin ſhape, yet more bodily ſtrength, vigor, and ſpirit, than a northern European would be apt to ſuppoſe from their dry and lean aſpect †. Theſe characteriſtics, which belong chiefly to the Caſtilians and moſt ſouthern provincials, are leſs applicable to the inhabitants of the moſt northern provinces, particularly the Biſcayans, who are remarkably robuſt both in appearance and reality, have a good complexion, and an air of countenance and character quite different from that of the Caſtilians ‡. A conſiderable proportion of the Spaniſh women in general are ſaid to Perſons.

† Jardine, vol. ii. page 96 and 121. Swinburne, page 407. Dalrymple's Travels, &c. Swinburne has obſerved that the Spaniſh women affect a prominent belly and a low flat breaſt, page 337. The Marquis de Langle in his Sentimental Tour has remarked, that the ears of the Spaniards are ſo large that gloves could ſcarcely contain them; but I feared to admit theſe characteriſtics from ſingle authorities. A practice obſerved by the Counteſs Danois to prevail in Spain in the laſt century, of conſtricting the feet of females from their infancy ſo as to render them extremely ſmall, has not been noticed by later travellers, only that Peyron ſeems to allude to ſome remnant of the cuſtom in ſome provinces. Don Joſeph D'Ulloa in his voyage to South America found this practice in full force in the Spaniſh colony of Lima. This is perhaps no more than the old Spaniſh cuſtom retained more fully in the colony than in the mother country.

‡ Bourgoanne, vol. i. page 9. Dillon, page 185, &c.

be beautiful, but as they ſooner arrive at maturity, ſo they ſooner loſe the appearance of youth, than the females of moſt nations of northern Europe; and their beauty, unaided by complexion, is of a different kind, conſiſting in a fine ſhape, a certain active flexibility of make, an eaſy and graceful motion, ſoft and delicate features, and bright eyes, ſo expreſſive that they ſeem to ſpeak §. Nor have they as yet adopted a cuſtom, which, though uſed in nations the moſt refined, is yet irrational and barbarous, that of heightening the complexion by painting the ſkin.

Habit

About 70 years paſt, ſince which time a prince of the royal family of France, or of the houſe of Bourbon, has remained in poſſeſſion of the throne of Spain, the dreſs of the French has been introduced and very much encouraged by the court, but almoſt all the nation retain their ancient habit all or in part. This varies in the different provinces, but may in general be ſaid to conſiſt principally of a ſilk net, or cotton ſkull cap, worn on the head to confine the hair, a broad round flapped, or flouched hat, and a long cloak moſtly black or dark brown, in the uſe of which they are very dextrous, throwing it over them in different forms according to the occaſion. A ſword of immoderate length, carried under the cloak, was formerly part of even the peaſants dreſs, and is ſtill retained by ſome. A pair of muſtachios uſed to grace the upper lip. The

§ Jardine, vol. ii. page 210. Bourgoanne, vol. ii. page 172. Peyron, page 356, 357. Marquis de Langle, &c.

flouched

ſlouched hat is uſed almoſt every where but in Madrid, where by royal edict all are obliged to wear their hats cocked. Not only throughout the country, but alſo in the capital the cloak is worn over the other clothes, at leaſt in undreſs, even by thoſe who have adopted the French habit. Some of both ſexes in the country wear the montera, which is a brown ſtuff bonnet concealing part of the face. The female habit conſiſts chiefly of the ſilk net for the hair, a gown fitting the ſhape and gently preſſing the wriſts, a black petticoat worn outſide of the gown in church and in other public places, and a black or white veil, which only in part conceals the face. A kind of muſlin ſhawl, called the mantilla, covers the head and ſhoulders, and ſerves "the various purpoſes of the hood, of the cloak, and of the veil. No foreigner can ever attain their eaſe and elegance in putting on this ſimple dreſs. With the Spaniſh women the mantilla appears to have no weight. Lighter than air it ſeems to ſupply the place of wings ‖." The ladies have admitted the French attire, but in diſhabille they carry the veil, without which ſcarcely any woman of whatever rank is to be ſeen on foot. From a uniformity of dull garments in either ſex, a crowd of people in Spain exhibits, inſtead of a chearful, a melancholy ſpectacle, reſembling a proceſſion at a funeral, or ſome other mournful ceremony *. To particularize all the varieties

‖ Townſend, vol. i. page 212.

* For the habits, ſee Bourgoanne, vol. i. page 229. vol. ii. page 140, 195, 196, 221. Peyron, page 5, 355, 356. Swinburne,

varieties of habit which prevail among the peaſantry, or lower ranks of people, of the different provinces, is neither within the ſphere of my information, nor could be intereſting to the reader: I ſhall only obſerve that, inſtead of ſhoes, the Biſcayans cover their feet with brogues † not unlike thoſe of the Scottiſh highlanders, or Iriſh peaſants, and others, as the Valencians, with ſandals made of pack thread: that the Catalonians wear a red night cap over a black net which receives the hair and hangs down on the back, a waiſtcoat or ſhort jacket with ſilver buttons, cloſe and bound with a long ſilk ſaſh paſſing many times round the loins, commonly black velvet breeches, and ſandals on the feet without any ſtockings: that the Arragonians have a black velvet bonnet peaked like the mitre, and ſhort white trowſers, called bragas, reaching below the middle of the thighs: and that many of the peaſants of Leon have round hats, leather jackets without ſleeves, and trowſers ſomewhat reſembling thoſe of the Dutch.

Food. Excepting the Biſcayans and ſome other northern provincials, the Spaniards eat but little animal food.

burne, page 66, 88, 102. Barretti's Travels in Portugal and Spain, Dalrymple, &c. Townſend, vol. i. page 115, 116, 128, 227, 251, 268.

† Dillon, page 176. A notion has been long entertained that the Biſcayans and Iriſh are deſcended from the ſame ſtock. This notion is unſupported by reaſon, for ſimilitude of cuſtoms is no proof of identity of origin, and no affinity of language is found in the Biſcayans and Iriſh. See Ledwich's Antiquities of Ireland, page 7.

They

They make great uſe of hot ſtimulating ingredients, ſuch as onions, garlic, and pepper. Boiled or roaſted cheſtnuts, and ſweet acorns prepared in the ſame manner, conſtitute a conſiderable proportion of the food in mountainous parts where theſe fruits abound. Chocolate ſeems to be as much an article of diet with the Spaniſh gentry, as tea with the Dutch and Britiſh. Among their diſhes is the olla podrida, which conſiſts of beef, mutton, fowl, ham, pigs feet, garlic, onions, and other ingredients, boiled together for a long time ‡. The gazpacho, which is a diſh of the peaſants, is a kind of ſoup compoſed of bread ſoaked in water, with pepper, ſalt, vinegar, and garlic. §. The principal ſuſtenance of this claſs of men is bread, moſtly of maize, dipped in oil, which is occaſionally ſeaſoned with vinegar, or eaten dry with a bit of ſalt fiſh or a head of garlic.

The houſes of the Spaniſh gentry are commonly built in ſuch a manner as to form each a quadrangle with a court in the middle. Their accommodations muſt appear a little incommodious to Engliſh travellers; three or four beds, even in reſpectable houſes, being crowded into one room, and Houſes.

‡ Dillon, page 455.

§ Dalrymple. Having taken the extracts from this author without marking down the pages, and not having the book before me, I can only refer to his book at large, and not to the particular places in it. The ſame is my caſe with Barretti's, Twiſſe's, and ſome other travellers publications concerning Spain.

three

three or four gentlemen occaſionally ſleeping in one chamber ‖.

Manners. The conſtant intercourſe of the French ſince the beginning of the preſent century, together with the influence of the court which favours the introduction of the modes of France, has operated powerfully toward a change of the Spaniſh manners; but a total metamorphoſis in this reſpect muſt be the work of a much longer period, ſince ignorance, ſuperſtition, bigotry, and a conſequent attachment to old cuſtoms, are eminent in the Spaniards above almoſt all the other nations of Europe. Though endued with an extraordinary ſhare of natural vivacity, the Spaniards are in their exterior deportment grave, ſedate, and ſolemn. People of all ranks aſſume an air of importance. They are fond of titles, pomp, and formality. Pride of anceſtry is a ſtriking feature in the Spaniſh character. The meaneſt peaſant, who traces a pure deſcent from the ancient inhabitants of the country, regards with diſdain all thoſe who are ſuſpected of having any Mooriſh blood in their veins. This pride, abſurd as it is ridiculous, is yet of ſuch a nature among the Spaniards as to lead to a contempt of baſe actions, ſuch as frauds, falſehood, and breach of promiſe; ſo that it is ſaid by a late very reſpectable traveller, "that ſimplicity, ſincerity, generoſity, a high ſenſe of dignity, and ſtrong principles of honor, are the moſt prominent and ſtriking features of the Spaniſh character *." It leads alſo to a manly confidence and

‖ Townſend, vol. i. page 275, 276, 352.
* Townſend, vol. ii. p. 387, 388.

ſelf-

ſelf-reſpect, the meaneſt ranks of people ſeeming to poſſeſs a kind of conſcious dignity, and appearing without diffidence in the preſence of ſuperiors.

National pride alſo, of which all people in every part of the globe appear to participate in a greater or leſs degree, is carried to extremity in Spain, and ſeems to have been partly cauſed, at leaſt augmented, by the eminent figure which this kingdom made in the ſixteenth century, when it was by far the moſt formidable ſtate in Europe; the effect ſtill ſubſiſting, though the cauſe is no more. How far ſoever theſe lofty ideas of their anceſtry and nation may be favourable in ſome inſtances to generoſity of ſentiment, pride, which owes its exiſtence chiefly to ignorance, muſt have its erroneous tendencies and evil effects. It tends to foſter in the Spaniards an illiberal contempt and diſlike of foreigners, and to render deſpicable in their conception induſtrious occupations which reaſon accounts honourable, while begging and aſſaſſination, which are baſe in their own nature, are not viewed in the ſame diſhonourable light. But the ſloth, indolence, and lounging liſtleſs manner of this nation, the greater part of whom bear in their auſtere and ſallow viſages the marks of laſſitude and poverty, are doubtleſs chiefly owing to the defects of the civil and religious inſtitutions, which on one hand hold out no incentive to induſtry, and, on the other give great encouragement to idleneſs by indiſcriminate charity; great quantities of food being every day diſtributed at the doors of convents and prelates houſes to all vagabonds, without diſtinction, who come to

aſk

aſk it; and the high ſpirit of the Spaniards is not of ſuch a kind, in the lower claſſes, but that vaſt numbers prefer dirt and rags with idleneſs to a life of decency with labour. Yet this averſion from honeſt endeavours for a comfortable mode of living, for which the nation in general is juſtly reproached, and which is eminently prevalent in the provinces of New Caſtile and Eſtremadura, is by no means univerſally applicable to all its parts; the Catalonians and Biſcayans being exemplary patterns of activity and induſtry, and bearing in their aſpect the ſigns of chearfulneſs and content. Some others of the northern provincials are diligent in a leſs degree. The Gallicians are rather laborious than induſtrious. Above 50,000 of theſe people ſpread themſelves yearly through the whole peninſula in queſt of employment, aſſiſting the indolent inhabitants of Caſtile and other provinces to reap the corn, and perform other neceſſary duties of rural economy.

The ſedateneſs of the Spaniards excludes not mirth, but they retain a certain gravity and ſteady equanimity of manner even when they are moſt gay and facetious. Acting with a coldneſs and ſtately reſerve toward ſtrangers, they are not without benevolence, and are found upon acquaintance to have a complaiſance not affected but ſincere. Too cautious, deliberate, and ſlow, in their enterprizes, they are in the execution of them patient, conſtant, and indefatigable. Their devotion with reſpect to the external forms of religion is extreme, but the moral part meets with but little attention, ſo that an

an uncommon licentiouſneſs, or diſſolution of manners, particularly with reſpect to the conjugal tie, appears from good authority to prevail †. A ſpirit of revenge and a cuſtom of private aſſaſſination, for which the Spaniards have been ſtigmatized, but which of late ſeem confined to the loweſt claſſes, and exerted in much fewer inſtances than formerly, are doubtleſs chargeable to the account of wrong notions of honour, and defective or ill executed laws; which, while they give not ſufficient protection to the individual, and thereby in ſome meaſure inſtigate him to ſeek redreſs by his own hand, permit a church in each city to be an aſylum for malefactors, from whence the officers of juſtice muſt not attempt to take them. Thus in this, as in a multitude of other inſtances, is the ſacred name of religion abuſed to the moſt irreligious purpoſes.

† A judicious traveller thinks that this depravity has its ſource in the celibacy of the clergy. "The parochial clergy have their connexions and their children, but not as they ought, in the moſt honourable way. They are diſgraced in the eyes of the people, who are taught by their example to live in the violation of the laws; and their children, for want of a proper education, are fitted only for the vileſt employments in the community. How different is the picture where marriage is allowed? The miniſter is like the father of his pariſh, and his wife performs the office of a mother. Both ſet an example of virtue, and in every village teach the peaſants how to value their domeſtic comfort. In the ſtreet their children, commonly a numerous offſpring, are diſtinguiſhed by their looks of health, by their cleanlineſs, and by the decency of their conduct; and, when ſent into the world, they form the moſt valuable members of ſociety." Townſend, vol. i. page 350.

Some

Some Spaniſh cuſtoms appear to be the reſult of climate, and to belong to this in common with other ſouthern people. Ice and ſnow are collected in winter and depoſited in proper places for the uſe of ſummer, when the body, languid with intenſe heat, is refreſhed with draughts of iced water. An afternoon ſlumber ſeems to be held as almoſt a neceſſary of life by the Spaniards, who commonly dine at noon or a little after, and then go to ſleep for two or three hours; on which account the gentry commonly ſit at dinner in diſhabille, and ſeldom dreſs until the evening. The Spaniards are frugal in food, and have a juſt abhorrence of drunkenneſs. This virtue, which ſeems in part the effect of climate, is far from being extended to all the inhabitants of this great peninſula; ſome of the northern provincials, particularly the Biſcayans and Catalonians, counterbalancing in ſome meaſure the virtue of induſtry by the vice of exceſſive drinking.

Spain having been during ſome centuries in great part poſſeſſed by the Arabs and Moors, a ſtrong tincture of Oriental manners remained among its inhabitants until the preſent age. In the laſt century women of all ranks ſat croſs-legged on cuſhions or on mats, a cuſtom which ſeems to be quite aboliſhed only among the higher claſſes ‡. The Spa-

‡ Much may be ſeen concerning the manners of the Spaniards of the laſt century in the travels of the counteſs Danois. For the manners of the preſent race, ſee Bourgoanne, vol. ii. from page 122 to 194. Peyron, from page 342 to 369. Jardine, vol. ii. page 7, 17, 26, 30, 31, 32, 47, 89, 90, 95, 96, 107, 112, 153, 171, 172. Swinburne, from page 389 to 397. Dalrymple, Barretti, &c. &c.

niards

niards have always treated the fair ſex with profound reſpect, a reſpect ſometimes ſeeming to approach adoration. This laudable deference for the more amiable part of our ſpecies was formerly alloyed with the odious paſſion of jealouſy. Females were in a great meaſure ſequeſtered from the ſight of the other ſex, and watched with rigorous caution; but by the introduction of French and Italian manners, jealouſy, though ſtill highly retained among lovers, is ſaid to be no longer the characteriſtic of Spaniſh huſbands. Women ſeem at preſent to have much more liberty in Spain than in Britain §, and the two ſexes mingle in company and converſation, but ſtill with more diſtance and reſerve in ſome reſpects; certain innocent familiarities, which juſtly paſs without reprehenſion in other countries, being rigorouſly prohibited by the Spaniards ‖; and yet in one reſpect a freedom is admitted by the females of this nation which has much ſurprized ſome foreigners, for they not only hear from the men without a bluſh, but even they themſelves are apt to utter in their company, expreſſions plainly immodeſt with-

§ Mr. Townſend ſays that the wife is ſo completely miſtreſs of the houſe that the huſband is there a mere cypher with reſpect to viſitants; theſe never making the leaſt inquiry about him, often not in the leaſt known to him, and going directly all hours of the day to the room where ſhe receives company, without rapping at the door, or ſaying a word to the ſervants. vol. i. page 277, 344, 345.

‖ It is ſaid that a man would no more be permitted to kiſs a Spaniſh lady than to proceed to the laſt degree of familiarity with her, and that the former would be conſidered as an indubitable prelude to the latter.

out

out any veil of ambiguity, and ſuch as could not be uſed in the preſence of a French woman; inſomuch that, while the Britiſh ladies are reckoned by ſome almoſt prudes in compariſon of the French, the French are in this reſpect prudes in compariſon of the Spaniſh.

For this want of delicacy in the ladies of Spain, their mode of education, and the cuſtoms of a people as yet but little civilized, will eaſily account. Abandoned almoſt excluſively in youth to the government of ignorant ſervants, even in the higheſt families, they are habituated from infancy to the groſs language and ideas of rude domeſtics. They are accuſtomed alſo to the licentious exhibitions of the theatre, and to the more than voluptuous attitudes of the fandango. The fandango is a dance peculiar to the inhabitants of this peninſula, and of which they are fond to enthuſiaſm, inſomuch that when it commences at a ball, every countenance is filled with animation, and even thoſe who are obliged by age or profeſſion to an appearance of gravity can ſcarcely reſtrain themſelves from joining in the cadence. It is danced in pairs of a male and female each, who alternately retreat and purſue, and who, though they touch not ſo much as the hands of each other, uſe ſuch attitudes, looks, and geſtures, when the dance is performed in all its ſpirit, as are to the real combats of the Cyprian Goddeſs what military evolutions in peace are to the actual diſplay of the art of war.

The cuſtom which has long prevailed in Italy under the name of *la ciciſbeatura*, or according to the Engliſh modification of the word, *ciciſbeiſm*, ſeems of late

late firmly eſtabliſhed in Spain under that of *el cortejar*. Each lady chooſes a male friend who attends her abroad on all occaſions, to the public walk, the theatre, and even the confeſſional. Whatever be the nature of the connexion between the lady and her friend, or *cortejo*, it is ſaid to be in general more permanent than that which ſubſiſts between the Italian female and her ciciſbeo, and is alſo ſuſpected to paſs much more frequently the bounds of platonic love ‖.

Among the old Spaniſh cuſtoms ſtill retained is the familiarity between maſters, even of the higheſt rank, and their domeſtics. Servants are permitted to join in converſation while they attend at table, and are treated with affability, kindneſs, and humanity, which creates in them a warm attachment. It is the cuſtom to maintain not only all the old ſervants who lived in the family, but their children and relations alſo, inſomuch that a ſingle nobleman ¶ is ſaid to have ſupported in this way above three hundred per-

‖ Moſt travellers ſeem to intimate that this connexion in Spain includes the laſt degree of familiarity between the ſexes, but this opinion is not be adopted in its full extent on ſlight grounds, though in a more limited ſenſe it ſeems to have foundation enough. What the nature of it is in Italy, I am able to ſhew with much more ſatisfactory information; we are not to wonder that ciciſbeiſm, ſuddenly introduced from Italy, without a proper prediſpoſition among the Spaniards for its reception, ſhould be carried to a vicious exceſs.

¶ The Duke of Arcos who died in 1780. See Bourgoanne, vol. i. p. 105. Townſend vol. 1. p. 353. the former ſays three thouſand, the latter above three hundred: perhaps the one includes children; the other only adults.

ſons at once. This practice, which would be very laudable if it were confined within due limits, is followed by bad conſequences when carried to exceſs, as it tends to encourage the general propenſity to idleneſs. Hoſpitality, except among the northern mountaineers, ſeems little known in Spain. The moſt uſual entertainment is the refreſco, which is commonly a light repaſt, but becomes, on occaſion of a wedding, chriſtening, or birth-day, a matter of heavy expence. On ſuch feſtivals, water, in which a certain kind of ſmall ſugar loaves are diſſolved, is followed by chocolate, and that by various kinds of confectionary, which the gueſts ſeize with a rapacity quite aſtoniſhing to ſtrangers, as, beſides what they eat, they fill their pockets, hats, and even handkerchiefs, and ſend away large quantities by their ſervants.

It has been already mentioned that the Spaniſh gentry have ſcarcely any reliſh for rural pleaſures, and dwell always in towns. Their chief amuſements are balls, concerts, the exhibitions of the ſtage, and bull-feaſts. The laſt, by which are underſtood combats variouſly modified of men againſt bulls, are quite peculiar to the Spaniſh peninſula *. At moſt of the towns this kind of ſport is diſplayed in circular areas, about one hundred and ſeventy feet in diameter, ſurrounded with wooden ſeats, which riſe one behind another in form of an amphitheatre; but in ſome places the great ſquares are made

* Bourgoanne gives a circumſtantial account of this exhibition, vol. ii. from p. 145 to 164. Some account of it is alſo given by Twiſſe, Swinburne, &c. &c.

to

to ſerve for that purpoſe. The ſame attention ſeems to be given to the breed of bulls reſerved for this ſport, which is paid by ſome other nations to that of game cocks. The bulls are produced ſingly one after another, and commonly near twenty are ſucceſſively butchered at a ſingle exhibition. In general the animal is firſt encountered by two men on horſeback, afterward by the ſame number, or more, on foot, and laſtly diſpatched by a ſingle footman called the matador. Formerly the monarch with his court uſed to attend this barbarous amuſement, and the combatants were often men of high rank; but the royal family no longer diſhonour themſelves by countenancing ſuch a ſpectacle, and a kind of hired gladiators, inſtead of gentlemen, now moſtly enter the liſts; ſo that ſome room is given to hope that the cruel cuſtom will in time become obſolete, or at leaſt will ceaſe to be the object of any but ſuch execrable rabble, as thoſe who in the Britiſh iſlands, to the ſhame of the legiſlature, amuſe themſelves with the infernal ſport of bull-baiting.

PORTUGAL.

PORTUGAL, cloſed on two ſides by the provinces of Spain properly ſo called, and elſewhere bounded by the ocean, is a kingdom of but moderate extent, divided on the north, and for a great way on the eaſt, from the territories of the Spaniſh monarchy by branches of the great Cantabrian chain, and in moſt other places by other mountains, all which, firſt by their riſe, and afterwards by their gradual declination toward the Atlantic, ſeem to form the plan of the country, and ſeparate it from the Spaniſh dominions. The northern parts are very uneven and rugged with mountains, hills, and rocks, among which are a great number of beautiful irriguous vallies. Toward the ſouth the face of the country grows more level, but at the ſame time more arid and barren. The province of Alentejo ſeems to be a dead flat almoſt throughout, and to be a continuation of the great Spaniſh plain of Eſtremadura, which here makes as it were an extenſive gap, or diſcontinuation of the rugged frontier which in general is the common limit of the two kingdoms †. The plains of Alentejo are bounded on the ſouth by the mountains of Algarva, which appear to be a pro-

General face.

† See Jardine's Letters, vol. ii. p. 23, 231. What information I could elſewhere collect from curſory travellers and others, tends to confirm the remarks of this judicious author.

longation

longation of the Sierra Morena, and to form this charming little province by their ſouthern projections, declivities, and vallies. Of mountains which are ſituate within the confines of Portugal the moſt noted is the rock of Liſbon, or Cabo de Penha, called by the ancients the Promontory of the Moon, which is the extremity of a rocky chain, and ſtands on the northern ſide of the Tagus, at the mouth of that river, and riſes to a great height ſo as to form a noble object of direction to mariners.

Rivers. Of all parts of the Spaniſh peninſula Portugal is the moſt advantageouſly ſupplied with water, receiving the vaſt floods of the three primary Spaniſh rivers, the Guadiana, Tajo, and Duero, waſhed on the north by the Minho, and watered by a multitude of ſmaller ſtreams whoſe courſes are confined within its own limits, of which the two principal are the Mondego and Cadaon. Of theſe the former takes its ſource from the Sierras des Eſtrellas, a lofty chain of mountains in the province of Beira, and after a courſe of about one hundred and forty Engliſh miles, mixes with the Atlantic. The latter, riſing from the mountains of Algarva, winds through above one hundred miles to the port of Setuval, where it is loſt in the ocean.

Air. Shelving in general toward the Atlantic, and ventilated by oceanic winds, this kingdom enjoys a ſomewhat milder temperature, both in winter and ſummer, than the interior Spaniſh provinces, and a moiſter air. The rains which commonly begin about the autumnal equinox, and fall at intervals with great violence until about February, cauſe fre-

quent inundations in the low grounds, particularly in the mountainous parts of the country.

Productions. The fertility of Portugal, at leaſt in its preſent ſtate of cultivation, is conſpicuous only in its fruits. Of corn, the moſt uſual ſort of which is maize, the whole kingdom is ſaid not to yield enough for the ſupport of its inhabitants during ſix months, or even three according to other accounts. Paſturage is ſcanty; the cattle neither numerous nor of a good kind, horſes are particularly ſcarce; mules and aſſes uſed in their ſtead. Aſſes are the only animals on which the women ride, theſe ſure-footed creatures being beſt adapted to the rugged nature of the country. The fleeces of the ſheep are ſaid to weigh, on an average, only two pounds and a third each, and the annual quantity of wool produced in this kingdom to be ſeventeen hundred thouſand pounds weight †. The exports are chiefly wine, oil, fruits, and ſalt, beſide cork, ſumac, and ſome other articles of leſs importance. Among the wines are thoſe of Liſbon and Oporto, the latter of which is called Port by the Engliſh, who are ſaid to purchaſe annually from the Portugueſe about thirty thouſand pipes of this wine at the price of fifteen pounds each *. The fruits, conſiſtng of oranges, lemons, and ſome other ſorts, are inferior in quality to thoſe of ſeveral of the Spaniſh provinces. The ſalt is chiefly made at the bay of Setuval from ſea-water evaporated by the action of the ſun. The com-

Commerce.

† Lord Sheffield's obſervations on the manufactures, &c. of Ireland. Dublin 1785. p. 331.

* Jardine, vol. ii. p. 258.

merce

merce of Portugal, paſſive on the whole amount, is active with its foreign ſettlements, particularly Brazil, the trade of which employs between 20 and 30 ſhips annually, the cargo of each of which, conſiſting chiefly in ſugars, amounts to the value of about ten thouſand pounds †. The treaſure which Portugal annually receives from Brazil is ſuppoſed to be no leſs than 1,500,000 pounds, yet ſo much is the balance of trade with European countries againſt this nation, that all the caſh which is left to circulate in the kingdom is computed to be but about 660,000 pounds ‡. The imports of corn, fiſh, hardware, and other merchandize, which Portugal received from the Britiſh iſlands in the year 1785, were found to be in value 960,000 pounds, while all the exports furniſhed in the ſame year from this kingdom to the ſame iſlands, both of its own production and that of its diſtant ſettlements, amounted only to 728,000 pounds ¶.

The utmoſt length of this kingdom in a direct line from ſouth to north is near 360 Engliſh, or above 280 Iriſh miles. Its breadth varies from about 136 to 35 of the former denomination, or from about 106 to 27 of the latter. Its area may contain near 22 millions of Engliſh, or near 14 millions of Iriſh acres. Its inhabitants, about two millions in number, ſeem to form a not leſs thin population than Area. Population.

† Jardine, vol. ii. p. 257.

‡ Dictionaire Encyclop. Zimmermann's Political Survey of Europe.

¶ State of trade between the Britiſh dominions and Portugal laid before the Britiſh Houſe of Commons in 1787.

thoſe

thoſe of the kingdom of Spain, but are leſs unevenly diſtributed; yet in this alſo a conſiderable difference is obſerved. The northern provinces, beſt cultivated, moſt populous, and moſt pleaſing to the eye of the traveller, exhibit a finely variegated ſcenery of mountains, hills, and naked rocks, intermixed with fertile vallies, rivers, woods, vineyards, and white houſes, the laſt of which are rarely to be ſeen in general in this great peninſula. The part moſt beautified with villas is the country about Oporto, where many Engliſh reſiding on account of trade, have introduced the laudable taſte of their nation for rural improvements. Many rich plantations of fruit trees in theſe northern provinces, beautifully feſtooned with vines, as in Italy, combine with other objects to form the moſt grateful ſcenes. Toward the ſouth the plains at a diſtance from the coaſt, are moſtly vaſt waſtes of ſand and heath interſperſed with wretchedly ill cultivated ſpots. But throughout this kingdom, even in the beſt cultivated and moſt flouriſhing parts, the condition of animal life correſponds not to the vigour of the vegetable productions. The enſlaved and overtaxed peaſant ſtarves amid his luxuriant plantations, and his meagre cattle too plainly indicate the wretched poverty of their owner.*

Aſpect.

Hiſtory informs us that this kingdom has not been always in ſo low a ſtate of population and cul-

Hiſtory.

* For the view here given of the aſpect of the country, ſee Jardine, vol. ii. 255. Alſo the travels of Barrettti, Twiſſe, Dalrymple, and Harvey. Alſo Coſtigan's Sketches of Portugal, which ſo far as they agree with the accounts of genuine travellers, may be admitted as true.

ture.

ture, Its northern provinces were firſt conquered from the Moors by Alphonſo king of Leon, who to reward the ſervices of Henry of Burgundy a noble volunteer, conſtituted him Count of Portugal in the year 1095. Farther conqueſts being made with the aſſiſtance of troops drawn from France, Alphonſo, ſon of Henry, aſſumed the title of King of Portugal in the year 1139, and in proceſs of time, by the conduct of his ſucceſſors, the Mohammedans were expelled from every part of this kingdom. John, ſirnamed the baſtard, who was eſtabliſhed on the throne in the year 1411, was the firſt of a noble line of enterprizing and philoſophic monarchs, to whom the world is indebted for the diſcovery of the weſtern and eaſtern coaſts of Africa, and the navigation round that immenſe peninſula to the vaſt opulent regions of ſouthern Aſia,

In theſe glorious times the Portugueſe were the firſt people on the globe in naval ſkill, and their country ſeems to have contained above three millions of people; but their plans of colonization and conqueſt, by far too vaſt for ſuch a kingdom, exhauſted their ſtrength, and they were at length reduced to a ſtate of debility, by the loſs of almoſt their whole military force under their king Sebaſtian, who invaded Morocco, and there periſhed with his whole army by the hands of the Moors; ſoon after which, Philip the Second, King of Spain, taking advantage of the calamity, made a conqueſt of Portugal in the year 1580. The whole Spaniſh peninſula, thus reduced to the obedience of a ſingle monarch, continued for 60 years to form one vaſt kingdom,

kingdom, until the Portugueſe revolting in the year 1640, again rendered their country an independant ſtate, raiſing to the throne the Duke of Braganza, in whoſe family, a weak ſuperſtitious race, it ſtiil remains.

Diviſion and government.

The ſix provinces into which Portugal is divided, Algarva, Alentejo, Eſtremadura, Beira, Tra-los-montes, and Entre Minho e Douro, conſtitute a more uniform kingdom than that of Spain, none of them being diſtinguiſhed, like Biſcay or Navarre, by particular privileges. But the government is quite ſimilar to that of the contiguous kingdom, in almoſt every reſpect; a monarchy hereditary to the eldeſt ſon, or, in failure of males, to the eldeſt daughter, and perfectly abſolute, notwithſtanding ſome appearance of limitation; a ſhadow of the cortes ſtill ſubſiſting, but the conſent of their members, who are nominated by the ſovereign, a mere matter of form. The monarch, ſtiled King † of Portugal and Algarva, bears other titles of a much more pompous nature, but is moſtly called his Moſt faithful Majeſty, a title conferred on him by the Pope in the year 1748. His children are called Infantes and Infantas, except the eldeſt ſon, who is commonly ſtiled Prince of Brazil. The ſon of the Prince of Brazil bears the title of Prince of Beira. The degrees of nobility are the ſame as in Spain, but the nobles vaſtly inferior in wealth and in ſpirit. The inferior nobility, or rather the equeſtrian order, are termed fidalgos, and excepting ſome families privileged by the

† A female at preſent fills the throne.

king,

king, are not entitled to the appellation of don, which is given to all the grandees. The mocos fidalgos, or knights by birth, are viewed in a more honorable light than the cavalleros fidalgos, who have been raiſed to this rank from the commons, without being actually ennobled. The three orders of knighthood, of which the king is grand maſter, are thoſe of Chriſt, Saint James, and Avis. The laws are collected in like manner as thoſe of the confining monarchy, and the chief courts for their adminiſtration are thoſe of Liſbon and Oporto, and the Aulic council, to which appeals are carried in the laſt reſort.

Revenues. The annual revenue of the Portugueſe monarch is eſtimated at 1,800,000 pounds, of which about 350,000, are ſuppoſed to ariſe from the mines of Brazil. The remainder is ſupplied by the duties on imports and exports, a land tax of ten per cent. *, and various other impoſts, among which the tax on fiſh is extremely burdenſome, fiſhermen being obliged to pay above 70 per cent. for what they take †.

Forces. Beſide a country militia compoſed of peaſants, the army maintained within the kingdom of Portugal may be ſomewhat above 20,000 men. Some bodies perhaps not amounting to half that number, are diſperſed in the widely extended ſettlements abroad. The navy is ſaid to conſiſt of about 12 or 13 ſhips of the line, and nearly the ſame number of frigates. So great and diſtant are the poſſeſſions of this kingdom in compariſon of its extent and diminutive

* Zimmerman.

† Jardine, vol. ii. p. 259.

ſtrength,

ſtrength, that it has been compared to a kind of imaginary ſpider, whoſe legs are conceived to be ſo immenſely long, ſlender and feeble, as to be almoſt uſeleſs and unable to make any exertions. Yet the foreign ſettlements of this ſtate were once much more numerous. Of all its former dominions in Aſia, it only now retains a few fortreſſes in Ciſgangene India, as Du Chaoul, and Goa. Among the iſlands of the Atlantic it commands the Azores, the Madeiras, the iſles of Cape Verde, and thoſe of Guinea Bite. In the main continent of Africa it poſſeſſes ſeveral ſettlements on the river Gambia, and on the coaſts of Guinea, Congo, and Zanguebar; and in America the immenſe region of Brazil, together with ſome inconſiderable poſſeſſions in Guiana, and ſome ſmall iſlands on the Brazilian coaſt.

Foreign ſettlements.

Religion

The religion of Portugal is the ſame with that of Spain, and eſtabliſhed with the ſame, or, if poſſible, a ſtill more intolerant ſpirit; the Inquiſition, that diabolical engine of bigotry and ignorance, exerting at leaſt as baneful an influence. The head of the Portugueſe clergy is the patriarch of Liſbon, who is always a cardinal of the royal family, whoſe dignity was inſtituted in the year 1716, and whoſe revenue has been ſaid to amount to 30,000 pounds yearly. The reſt of the hierarchy conſiſts of the three archbiſhops of Braga, Evora, and Liſbon, who have the rank of marquis, and fifteen biſhops, beſide ſeven more in their foreign ſettlements. All the biſhops are nominated by the king, who draws a fourth part of the revenues of their ſees. The number of eccleſiaſtical perſons of all ſorts, including ſecular

ſecular clergy, monks and nuns, is doubtleſs quite enormous in proportion to the number of all the inhabitants; but the eſtimates of it commonly given ſeem quite incredible *. Miſerable indeed muſt be the ſtate of literature in a nation ſo ſituate with reſpect to religion, and in fact the cloud of ignorance, which overſpreads this whole peninſula, ſeems to caſt its blackeſt ſhade on the Portugueſe territories. Of the three Portugueſe univerſities of Liſbon, Evora, and Coimbra, the laſt is by far the moſt conſiderable, but conſiderable only in revenues and number of ſtudents; its object, as that of the others, being a ſubtil kind of logic and ſcholaſtic divinity, which bring no information to the mind. Literature.

As the inhabitants of the different provinces of Spain differ conſiderably among themſelves, the Portugueſe, who conſtitute a diſtinct nation, though under the ſame form of civil and religious government, are in ſeveral reſpects very unlike the Caſtilians, whoſe character is commonly taken for that of the Spaniſh nation in general. Of all the Spaniſh provincials the Gallicians are the people whom the Portugueſe are ſaid to reſemble moſt in perſonal conformation, manners, and language *.—— The laſt is very different from the Caſtilian or Inhabitants.

* They are ſaid by ſome to amount to 200,000, by others to 300,000. As the number of inhabitants of every age and denomination is not reckoned by any to be much above two millions, of which not above half can be full grown perſons, the proportion of clerical perſons is, according to theſe accounts, as one to five, which cannot be admitted without inconteſtable evidence.

* Jardine, vol. ii. p. 31.

Spaniſh

Spaniſh tongue, when conſidered as a dialect of it, which is evidently the caſe. The people of Portugal, eſpecially the gentry, are obſerved to be ſomewhat like the French †, this country having been conquered from the Moors by princes of the houſe of Burgundy, who probably drew frequent ſupplies of troops from France during their wars; beſide that a connexion between this and the French monarchy has ſince that period been more than once formed, in oppoſition to the attempts of the Spaniards to ſubjugate Portugal.

Far from the ſtubborn and obſtinate temper of the Caſtilians, the Portugueſe are ſaid to be of a ſoft, docile, and pliant diſpoſition, apt to receive impreſſions, and changeable ‡. This perhaps may account for their great degeneracy; all the powers of the ſecular and eccleſiaſtical tyranny not having been able to extinguiſh generoſity in the Spaniſh gentry; while very little candour, probity, or honour is ſuppoſed to remain among thoſe of Portugal. From the baleful influence of the Inquiſition, which tends to create mutual diſtruſt in the minds of all, inſincerity, hypocriſy, and deep diſſimulation, are obſerved to be the unhappy characteriſtics of this people in general. In no part of the globe are the externals of religion practiſed with greater punctuality; in none are the great duties of morality more flagrantly violated, and with leſs compunction. Whatever is laudable in the national character is ſaid to be found chiefly in the lower claſſes. The peaſants are

† Ibid. vol. ii. p. 233, 269.

‡ Ibid. vol. ii. p. 233.

reported

reported to be obſequiouſly courteous, and, eſpecially in the northern territories, much more induſtrious than the Caſtilians. This habit of induſtry, which oppreſſion has not been able totally to ſtifle, was doubtleſs acquired in the reigns of thoſe glorious princes, who ſo greatly enlarged the ſphere of human knowledge by a ſeries of diſcoveries elſewhere unparalleled in the records of time. It is obſerved that by the conſtant reſidence of Britiſh families on account of trade, ſome Britiſh modes and cuſtoms are introduced in the commercial towns, particularly Oporto. It has alſo been obſerved that from the intercourſe of this kingdom for above three centuries with the coaſts of Africa, and a frequent importation of Negros thence, the Portugueſe blood is in ſome maritime parts, particularly Liſbon, tinctured with that of the Negro race §. This mixture of Negro blood, perhaps but ſmall in proportion to the whole Portugueſe people, is however far greater than in any other European nation.

Excepting the above, and a few other differences, the Portugueſe have a general reſemblance to the Spaniards, in perſons, habits, and manners. They ſeem to equal the Spaniards in ſobriety, reſerve, reſpect for the fair ſex, jealouſy, attention to genealogy, pride of anceſtry, fondneſs for bull-beaſts and the fandango, which is by them called fofa; and even to exceed them in ignorance, bigotry, ſuperſtition, and a ſpirit of aſſaſſination.

§ Barretti's Travels, vol. i.

THE

THE SPANISH ISLANDS

Conſiſt chiefly of the Baleares; the reſt of the iſlands on the coaſts of Spain, ſuch as the Alfaques at the mouth of the Ebro being too inconſiderable to merit a particular deſcription.

THE BALEARES.

THE Baleares form in the Mediterranean a groupe of five iſlands, Formentera, Cabrera, Ivica, Majorca, and Minorca, together with ſome others too ſmall to be noticed. They reſemble the neighbouring peninſula in climate, productions, and inhabitants. Their religion and government are the ſame with thoſe of Spain, forming under the title of the kingdom of Majorca, a part of the union of Arragon, and ſubject to the king of Spain. Formentera and Ivica anciently bore the name of Pityuſæ. The former, called alſo Frumentaria, and diſtinguiſhed anciently by the name of Ophiuſa, is of very inconſiderable dimenſions, ſaid to be fertile, to contain ſome wild aſſes, but to be deſerted by the human race from the terror of corſairs. Ivica, or Iviza, anciently named Ebuſus, is ſaid to be 60 miles in circuit and of an hilly ſurface. It is chiefly remarkable for the immenſe quantities of ſalt which are here procured with as little trouble as in the Mata of Valencia *. Its chief town is Ivica, ſituate on the eaſtern ſide toward the ſouth.

Cabrera ſituate on the ſouthern ſide of Majorca is of a very ſmall ſize, mountainous, and ill inhabited, but furniſhed with a good harbour, which faces Majorca, and is defended by a caſtle. Majorca, or Malorca, the greateſt of the Baleares, is re- Majorca.

* Dillon, page 387.

ported

ported to be 60 miles long and 45 broad, and to contain in area above 1,200,000 Engliſh acres, to be generally level, except the northern and weſtern ſides, which are mountainous; deſtitute of rivers but well furniſhed with ſprings, and fertile in its ſoil, exporting yearly, among other articles, 7000 pipes of oil of olives †. Its capital called Majorca, or Palma, ſuppoſed to be inhabited by 23,000 ‡ ſouls, is ſeated in the ſouth-weſtern part. The people of this iſland, who reſemble the Catalonians more than any other Spaniſh provincials, are ſtill ſaid to wield the ſling §, in the management of which we are informed by hiſtory that their anceſtors were very famous. The coaſts are guarded with watch towers.

Minorca. Minorca, having been in poſſeſſion of the Britiſh monarchy from the year 1708 to 1782, is the only one of the Balearic iſlands of which an authentic account ‖ has been publiſhed in Britain. It exceeds in magnitude the Iſle of Wight, being 33 Engliſh miles long, from nine to 14 broad, and containing above 150,000 Engliſh acres. The northerly winds being here the moſt frequent and violent, the northern coaſts are vaſtly more indented by inlets of the ſea than the ſouthern. The ſurface uneven, but not mountainous, riſes gradually towards the center, where it ends in a mountain of a conical form,

† Dillon, page 460.
‡ Zimmermann.
§ Swinburne, page 393.
‖ Armſtrong's Hiſtory of Minorca.

called

called Monte Toro, the moſt elevated part of the whole iſland, on whoſe top is a monaſtery. The hills are rocks, very thinly covered with a light fine ſoil, much more fertile than that of the plains, which, containing a great proportion of clay, is cold and unfertile both with reſpect to corn and paſturage. The ſeaſons are the ſame as in the Spaniſh peninſula, but, from the inſular ſituation, the air is more moiſt, and the temperature more mild. Sea breezes allay the ſummer's heat, which is however very conſiderable for about three months; and the cold of winter is ſo moderate that ſnow never lies unthawed many minutes, and froſt is a rare phenomenon, which ſome of the natives never ſee in all their lives. The inhabitants, about 27,000 in number, equal in lazineſs the moſt lazy Caſtilians, neglecting agriculture and manufactures, ſo that near a third of their corn, with moſt articles of ſubſiſtence and cloathing, are imported. Cittadella, ſituate on the weſtern ſide, and containing about 2500 inhabitants, is by ſome eſteemed the chief town, but Port Mahon, in the ſouth-eaſtern part, is of more importance, enjoying the fineſt harbour in the Mediterranean, a harbour which is hardly 200 yards wide at the entrance, but afterward widens, and runs near a league within land.

TABLE OF THE KINGDOM OF SPAIN.

Divisions.	Areas in geographical square Miles, 60 to a Degree.	Population.	Towns.	Inhabitants.
New Caſtile -	28,000	——	Madrid -	160,000
			Toledo -	25,000
			Aranjuez -	10,000
Old Caſtile -	11,840	——	Burgos -	10,000
			Segovia -	9,000
Leon -	12,880	——	Leon -	6,000
			Valladolid -	20,000
			Salamanca -	13,000
Eſtremadura -	12,300	100,000	Badayos -	6000
			Merida	
Granada -	9,280	500,000	Granada -	80,000
			Malaga -	50,000
Andaluſia, containing Sevilla, Cordova, and Jaen	15,360	400,000	Sevilla -	100,000
			Cadiz -	90,000
			Cordova -	32,000
			Jaen -	27,000
			Antequera -	19,000
Murcia -	3,000	——	Murcia -	60,000
			Carthagena -	23,000
Valencia -	7,850	716,000	Valencia -	80,000
			Alicante -	15,000
Catalonia -	9,280	——	Barcelona -	100,000
			Tarragona -	7,500
			Lerida -	16,000
Arragonia -	11,360	471,000	Saragoſſa -	36,000
			Hueſca -	6,800
Navarra -	2,880	——	Pampelona -	11,000
			Tudela	
Biſcaya, including Guipuſcoa and Alava -	4,460	——	Bilbao -	6,000
			St. Sebaſtian -	8,000
Aſturia -	3,840	——	Oviedo -	7,000
Gallicia -	10,240	1,000,000	St. Jago de Compoſtella -	10,000
			Corunna -	3,600
			Ferrol - -	7,600

TABLE

Longitude East from Ferro
Longitude West from Paris
ATLANTIC OCEAN
Cape Finisterre
Coruna
Santiago
Ferrol
GALLITIA
Minho R
Lima R
TRASOS MONTES
Oporto
Douro R
BEIRA
Mondego R
Coimbra
ESTREMADURA
Tagus R
Cape Rosa
Cadaon R
PORTUGAL
PALENTEJO
Guadiana R
ALGARVA
Cape St Vincent
ASTURIAS
Reynosa
Leon
LEON
OLD CASTILE
Burgos
Valladolid
Olmedo
Segovia
Salamanca
Guadarama
Escurial
MADRID
SPA
Aranjuez
Toledo
NEW CASTILE
ESTREMADURA
Badajoz
Sierra Morena
ANDALUSIA
Cordova
Guadalquivir
Sevilla
Tinto R
Granada
GRANADA
Malaga
Ronda
Zerez
Port Real
St Roch
Algesiras
Gibraltar
Straits
Tangier
MEDIT
Melilla
AFRICA
Geographical Leagues 17½ to a Degree
5 10 20 30 35

Ferro
FRANCE
Bayonne
PYRENEAN MOUNTAINS
Pamperluna
Cape Creus
Ebro
Saragossa
ARAGON
CATALONIA
Barcelona
Minorca I
MAJORCA I
Cabrera I
El Toboso
Eyes of the Guadiana
San Felipe
Murcia
Segura R.
Carthagena
Cape Palos
GRANADA
Cape de Gat
Oran
MEDITERRANEAN SEA
A NEW MAP
of
SPAIN
Designed for the
PRESENT STATE of SPAIN

n Paris

TABLE OF THE KINGDOM OF PORTUGAL.

Divisions.	Areas in ſquare geographical Miles.	Population.	Towns.	Inhabitants.
Eſtremadura -	5,440	400,000	Liſbon -	250,000
	7,220		Or -	200,000
			Lavua -	3,000
			Setuval -	10,500
Beira -	7,200	550,000	Coimbra -	12,000
			Aveira -	4,400
Entre Minho e Duero -	1,840	450,000	Oporto -	50,000
			Braga -	12,000
Tra los Montes	2,400	200,000	Braganza -	2,700
			Miranda	
Alentejo -	7,800	260,000	Evora -	10,000
			Villa Vicioſa -	3,700
			Elvas	
			Eſtremos -	6,500
			La Lippe	
Algarva -	1,600	63,000	Lagos -	2,800
			Tavira - -	4,700
			Faro	

SWITZERLAND,

Site. A COUNTRY of narrow dimenſions, but famous for its ſublime beauties and ſingular polity, lies moſtly between the ſummits of the Alps and thoſe of the Jura. The latter is a long ridge of mountains, lofty, but far inferior to the Alps in height, ſtretching from the Rhine a little above Baſil to the Rhone below Geneva, and riſing with its higheſt ſummit, that of Dole, to the altitude of eighteen hundred yards above the Mediterranean. This great ridge may be ſaid to conſtitute the weſtern and north-weſtern barriers of Switzerland; but its eaſtern and ſouthern are formed by the ſummits of the higheſt Alps clothed in everlaſting ſnow and ice. This region of never-thawing ſnow, whoſe baſe is ſuppoſed to be elevated 3000 yards above the level of the ſea, is bordered beneath in many places with a gloomy foreſt of huge Alpine firs, which ſerve to protect the lower grounds from the falls of impending ſnow, and ſhelter the paſtures from the rude blaſts of chilling winds, which blow from theſe realms of eternal winter *.

Face. Thoſe Alps, whoſe rugged backs, on the ſouth toward Italy, preſent only an immenſe range of tremendous precipices, decline leſs rapidly on the ſide of Switzerland by lateral chains, which diminiſh in

* See Randolph's Letters concerning Switzerland.

altitude

altitude as they recede from the main ridge, but in each of which the ſummits are nearly of one height †. The long narrow vallies, which with various degrees of elevation wind among theſe innumerable mountains, are ſo variouſly ſituate with reſpect to the ſun's influence, that ſome of them, almoſt ſecluded from the rays of that luminary, are loaded with perpetual ice, impervious to the ſtep of man or beaſt; whilſt others, concentring a ſufficient portion of its vivifying beams, ſmile with the gaiety of a fertile and improved ſoil. In general in this country of aſſured freedom, where each man is ſecure of enjoying the fruits of his labour, all is green and appears fertile, excepting ſuch tracts as Nature has abandoned to invincible ſterility, by oppoſing the impaſſable barriers of precipice, ſnow, and ice, to the progreſs of induſtry and vegetation. The hills are moſtly dotted thick with cottages, and clothed quite to their ſummits with beautiful woods, paſturage, or corn.

The moſt low, level, fertile, and cultivated part, watered by navigable rivers and canals, lies between the foot of the Alps and the Jura, in a line from north-eaſt to ſouth-weſt ‡. Hence the country, riſing to the ſummits of theſe vaſt ridges, may be conſidered as an immenſe amphitheatre, diſplaying a ſcenery the moſt grand and pictureſque that ever

† See Randolph's Letters, Letter 25. Alſo the account of General Pfiffer's Model in relief of this country in Coxe's Sketches of Switzerland, Letter 10.

‡ Randolph, Letter 38.

imagination

imagination conceived, infinitely varied, and utterly beyond all power of language to expreſs. Here horror, wild ſublimity, and ſoft beauty are combined; all is romantic, and ſome of the moſt ſtriking objects ſtrangely contraſted; ſnow and froſt being ſo blended with vegetation, that immenſe beds of everlaſting ice are edged with gay paſtures and fields of corn.

The mind is as it were loſt in aſtoniſhment, and the imagination confounded, in the contemplation of the magnificent objects of this moſt romantic country. Mountains piled on mountains towering to the ſkies with ineffable majeſty: Vaſt fragments of rock confuſedly heaped like the ruins of a ſhattered world: Regions of eternal ſnow begirt with ſable woods, or ſkirted with paſtures of the moſt vivid green: Rivers with raging current burſting their way through gloomy chaſms of rock, precipitated in foam with tremendous roar from ſteep to ſteep, or purſuing a leſs impetuous courſe through long winding vallies of ever-varying breadth, enamelled with ſoft verdure and ſtudded thick with hamlets, which are ſeen in all degrees of elevation, deep in the glinn, or aloft upon the eminences: Innumerable glittering caſcades falling in ſheets from ſtupendous heights down the dark precipices into deep lakes below: Lakes of various ſize, ſome of great extent, imboſomed amid awfully impending rocks, or bordered by grounds which riſe with a ſwift acclivity to the ridges of immenſe mountains, whoſe ſides wave with variegated woods, and whoſe ſummits are white with perennial ſnow: vaſt maſſes of

permanent

permanent ice gliſtening through the clouds, and on nearer approach reſembling bright frozen ſeas, clear mountainous mirrors of ſhining glaſs, cities, enormous caſtles, or citadels of cryſtal, and a thouſand other fantaſtic forms §. Theſe maſſes of perpetual ice, many miles in extent, and many hundred feet in thickneſs, ſloping like lava on the ſides of the mountains, and filling their interſtices, are the famous Glaciers, the exhauſtleſs reſervoirs whence are ſupplied the waters of the Rhine, the Rhone, and other great rivers. The ſurface of many appears like that of a raging ſea, ſuddenly arreſted by froſt and congealed into ice, but ſplit with fiſſures of a moſt formidable depth, which impede the courſe, and at length totally ſtop the progreſs of the traveller. Notwithſtanding the cold, which muſt be emitted from theſe great icy lavas ‖, they are bordered with woods, rich flowery lawns, cultivated grounds, inſomuch that a man may, in the ſame moment, touch with one hand ripened corn, and with the other the Glacier *. Glaciers.

Add to the fixed landſcapes of this beautiful region the fleeting, and no leſs wonderful ſcenery of the atmoſphere's phenomena, too various in ſuch ſublime tracts to be capable of even a ſimple enumeration. The refraction of light by the angles of the Glaciers, the icicles of the frozen woods, and other bodies, frequently afford a variegated ſplen- Aerial ſcenery.

§ See Bourrit's Journey to the Glaciers.
‖ This expreſſion is uſed in Randolph's Letters.
* Coxe's Sketches of Switzerland, Letter 23.

dor

dor or indeſcribable beauty †. The lofty frozen ſummits, which when illuminated by the rays of the ſetting ſun appear like gold, aſſume at his riſing the ſemblance of melted ſilver. Oft an impenetrable veil of duſky clouds involves a hill or valley in pitchy night, while all around glitter in the fulneſs of meridian ſplendor. Oft aerial viſions, or deceptions of the ſight, cauſed by vapours floating in the atmoſphere, riſe in ſucceſſion to the aſtoniſhed eye like the ſhifting ſcenes of a magic theatre. All ſometimes, as far as the ſight can reach, ſeems a wide ſmooth ſea with ſhores, promontories, and interſperſed iſlands. This, vaniſhing ſuddenly, diſcloſes the country with all its beauties in full view, or is ſucceeded by a train of other illuſive phantoms, equally ſtrange, and of the moſt capricious forms.

The Alps, whoſe branches with thoſe of the Jura over-run all Switzerland, have been already deſcribed in the general view ‡. The ſame is the caſe with thoſe great rivers, which at the commencement of their courſe water the Swiſs vallies §. Of thoſe ſtreams whoſe courſe lies wholly within the limits
Aar. of Switzerland, the greateſt is the Aar. This river, which is only a ſubſidiary ſtream of the Rhine, riſes near the ſource of the Rhone, and running with a more impetuous current than even that laſt named river, forcing its way through rocky defiles, falling in many formidable cataracts, and forming

† Bourrit.
‡ See page, 22.
§ See page, 40.

by

by baſons which lie in the way of its flood, the lakes of Brientz and Thun, at length, after a courſe of above 150 miles, diſcharges its waters into the Rhine between Conſtance and Baſil. One of this river's cataracts is ſeen near the village of Hundeck, in the diſtrict of Haſli, and canton of Berne, where the whole body of its water is precipitated from an height of about 150 feet ‖. But water-falls of this altitude are not uncommon in this region of ſublime landſcape. One of the moſt ſtriking, though not the higheſt, is the fall of Staubach, in the vale of Lutterbrun, in the ſame canton, formed by two torrents, which, after caſcading a long way down the mountain, at length unite, and are precipitated together in an altitude of 930 feet perpendicular; affording, in a proper poſition of the ſun and ſpectator, a circular rainbow of the moſt exquiſite beauty *. Water-fall.

As nothing can be more uneven than the ſurface of this country, elevated with huge mountains, among which are vaſt variety of depreſſions, the waters, which deſcend from the Glaciers and lofty ſummits, find abundance of receptacles, which thus become lakes of various magnitude and various elevation, but generally of a conſiderable depth. Many of theſe, though copiouſly fed by torrents from the ſnowy mountains around, have no viſible outlet for their waters, which doubtleſs find a paſſage through crevices of the rocks. The lakes of Lakes.

‖ Coxe's Sketches, Letter 15.
* Coxe's Sketches, Letter 16.

Geneva

Geneva and Conſtance, not being confined within the limits of Switzerland, have already been noticed with the Rhone and Rhine to which they belong. Of thoſe which lie within the Swiſs territories the moſt conſiderable are the lakes of Brientz and Thun, that of Neufchattel, the Waldſtaerſee, and the lakes of Wallenſtadt and Zuric. Theſe by intermediate ſtreams communicate with each other, with many ſmaller pieces of water, and with the great lake of Conſtance; an advantage of great importance for mutual intercourſe and the exportation of merchandize.

The lakes of Brientz and Thun, formed by the waters of the Aar which flows through them, are environed with high mountains, and ſituate at but a ſmall diſtance aſunder. That of Thun is lower, and ſomewhat larger; being about 12 miles long and three broad †. The lake of Neufchattel, or Yverdun, 20 miles long, and in ſome places five broad, receives by the river Broye the waters of the lake of Morat, which is 15 feet higher, and again diſcharges them by the Thiele into the lake of Bienne. It is bordered in many parts with level grounds, is elevated near 170 feet above the Leman Lake, and is leſs overhung with mountains than moſt others in Switzerland ‡. The Waldſtaer See, or lake of the four cantons, is the largeſt in this country, and one of the moſt beautifully variegated pieces of water in the world. It conſiſts of three

† Coxe, Letter 18.

‡ Coxe, Letter 25, 26, 29.

lakes

lakes connected by ſhort channels; that of Uri, nine miles in length, but narrow, and ſo confined by enormous rocks as to admit landing in but few places; that of Sweitz, encompaſſed with lofty, wooded, and infinitely varied mountains, but with leſs inacceſſible ſhores; and that of Lucerne, elevated 1408 feet above the level of the Mediterranean, extending in form of a croſs, and bordered in ſome places by ſloping hills, but in others by vaſt rocks and mountains, one of which is Mount Pilate, riſing inſulated from the ſhore to the height of 2000 yards perpendicular above the water §. The lake of Wallenſtadt, 16 miles long and two in breadth, extremely clear, deep, cold, and reported to be never frozen, is incloſed on all ſides with mountains of vaſt height excepting on the eaſt and weſt, by which ſituation is occaſioned a regular wind from theſe quarters, blowing from the former ſome hours in the evening, and from the latter in the morning ‖. The waters of this lake are conveyed by the river Limmat into that of Zuric, and from thence to the Aar. The lake of Zuric is near 30 miles long and three broad, bordered with fine cultivated grounds, containing one iſland a mile in circuit, and overlooked toward the ſouth with ſtupendous mountains *.

Switzerland has alſo its ſhare of medicinal waters; among which are thoſe of Leuk in the Valais, which Medicinal waters.

§ Coxe, Letters 10, 11.

‖ Coxe, Letter 5.

* Coxe, Letter 8. Alſo Letters on Switzerland by Coxe, (a new edition of the former work) Letter 10.

reſemble

reſemble the waters of Bath in Britain †; thoſe of Alvenew in the country of the Griſons, which in ſmell and taſte are like the Britiſh waters of Harrowgate; and thoſe of Pleffer in the county of Sargans, which are renowned for their efficacy againſt the gout, rheumatiſm, and cutaneous diſorders, and are tranſparent, perfectly free from ſmell or taſte, and of about the ſame degree of warmth as that of milk immediately drawn from the cow ‡.

Temperature. The temperature of Switzerland is not leſs unequal than its ſurface, inſomuch that the country, or even a ſingle diſtrict of it, may be ſaid to epitomize all the climates of Europe northward of Spain, from the ſouth of France to Spitzberg or Nova Zembla. This inequality ariſes not only from the diverſity of elevation, but alſo from the various accidents of light and ſhade occaſioned by the numerous points of rocks and mountains diſtributed in all varieties of poſition. Some tracts, advantageouſly expoſed to the powerful influence of the ſun's beams, have a very hot ſummer, a ſhort winter, and ſo early a ſpring, that in the beginning of February all is clothed in the green livery of Nature; while other inhabited parts, having a leſs fortunate poſition, are covered with ſnow during ſeven or eight months. In ſuch tracts, as in more northern climes, the tranſition from winter to ſpring or ſummer is often almoſt inſtantaneous.. The ſnow melts very ſlowly, and what is diſſolved in the day is fro-

† Coxe's Letters, Letter 33.
‡ Ibid. Letter 83.

zen

zen in the night; ſo that the plants are ſeen forcing their way up through, as it were, a harneſs of ice, until this, being ſplit in pieces by a ſoutherly wind, all becomes at once green and flowery ||. As the commencement of the ſpring and ſummer, in this country of mountains, is far later in ſome parts than in others, a traveller may, in a ſingle day's journey, experience the variations of all the four ſeaſons. When in the low vallies the harveſt is ripe, and the reapers at work, he may ſoon aſcend to tracts, where the corn is yet green, and the peaſants employed in cutting their hay: Thence to paſtures recently cleared of ſnow, where the new-ſprung herbage announces the vernal ſeaſon; and onward ſtill to the regions of perpetual winter, covered with permanent ſnow and ice. Even in the hotteſt vallies, the mornings and evenings in ſummer are deliciouſly cool by the ſhade of the mountains, and the air is perfumed with aromatic herbs; but it frequently happens that a whole tract of country is ravaged, the houſes unroofed, and the corn totally deſtroyed, by a whirlwind or hail-ſtorm *, and ſometimes a flood by the ſudden melting of the ſnow, or an avalanche from the mountain's brow, overwhelms all in its way with inevitable ruin. An avalanche is the fall of a huge maſs of perennial ſnow, which, by gradual accretion through ages, becoming at length too ponderous for its former ſupport, tumbles down the ſteep ſide of a mountain

|| Randolph's Letters, Letter 27.
* Randolph, Letter 36.

to the vale, bearing with it vaſt fragments of rock, and ſometimes deſtroying whole villages, together with their inhabitants †.

Productions.

Where the climate is ſo various, the productions muſt be different in the different diviſions of the country. The lower parts of the Jura, and ſome other declivities, are planted with vines. In many territories corn is cultivated, and the Swiſs peaſants are ſaid to ſurpaſs even the Engliſh in the management of their grounds, at leaſt in the œconomy of agriculture ‡. But by the rugged nature of the land, the tempeſtuous atmoſphere, or the too long duration of winter, by far the greater part of Switzerland is fit only for paſturage, and the paſtoral occupation is followed by a large proportion of its people. Many of their paſtures are almoſt inacceſſible, ſituate at a vaſt height above the habitations of men: Here the cattle are left during the ſhort ſummer without a keeper, and hence they return by inſtinct to the lower grounds when the ſnow begins to fall. Many of the meadows are ſurprizingly prolific, particularly thoſe which are ſo ſeated as

† Among theſe hilly regions, where embraced
In peaceful vales the happy Griſons dwell,
Oft ruſhing ſudden from the loaded cliffs,
Mountains of ſnow their gathering terrors roll.
From ſteep to ſteep, loud thund'ring down they come,
A wintry waſte in dire commotion all;
And herds and flocks, and travellers and ſwains,
And ſometimes whole brigades of marching troops,
Are deep beneath the ſmothering ruins hurl'd.

Thomſon's Seaſons.

‡ Randolph, Letter 39.

to

to be moiſtened by the waters of the Glaciers continually filtering through the ſoil; ſuch, though chilled by a winter of ſeven months duration, being in the remaining five months twice mowed and once paſtured §. Potatoes, which are much cultivated, and milk, as in Ireland, are the chief ſuſtenance of the Swiſſe peaſantry in the moſt mountainous diſtricts ‖. In ſome parts, particularly in the Upper Engadina among the Griſons, the bread, like that of Sweden, is baked only twice or thrice in the year, and often becomes ſo hard that it is broken with an hatchet. In the ſame territory the butter is often kept good during the whole year, by being melted and put in bottles *. The chief exports of Switzerland are cattle, butter, cheeſe and manufactured goods. The laſt are moſtly linens and other works of the loom; but in Geneva, and ſome barren tracts of the Jura, watchmaking is a capital branch of buſineſs; inſomuch that, in the two villages of Locle and Chaux de Fond, above 30,000 watches and clocks are annually made for exportation †.

Population.

The population of Switzerland, taken in its moſt extenſive ſignification, may perhaps ſomewhat exceed two millions; a number which muſt appear very large to thoſe who conſider the extent of territory and nature of the ſoil. The people are by no means equally diſtributed; for here ſolitude is blended with population in a ſtriking manner, ſome

§ Randolph, Letter 28.

‖ Coxe's Letters, Letter 71.

* Ibid. Letter 30.

† Compare Coxe, Letter 27, and Randolph, Letter 34.

tracts

tracts being abſolutely impregnable to induſtry, and quite deſolate, while others ſwarm with inhabitants to a ſurprizing degree. Without thoſe ample and ſuperb manſions, which denote an overgrown nobility, or an unwieldy accumulation of wealth, they inhabit detached houſes, ſcattered hamlets, villages, and large towns; all of which are commonly ſo ſituate as to command the moſt ſublime and beautiful proſpects. Their dwellings are generally large, neat, and commodious. The houſes not only in the villages, but even in many of the large burgs or towns, are built intirely of wood, with large penthouſe-roofs, which hang very low, and project beyond the area of the foundation, in order to be a more effectual defence againſt the ſnows.

Houſes.

The greater part of this country, anciently called Helvetia, was brought into a kind of ſubjection to the Roman Empire by Julius Cæſar, and was thenceforth conſidered as an unimportant part of the province of Gaul. Some remains of Roman antiquity are ſtill to be ſeen in the country, particularly about Avanche in the Pays de Vaud, and about Soleure: Alſo about Baſil, near which ſtood once a theatre capable of containing above 12,000 ſpectators ‡. On the diſſolution of that immenſe empire, Helvetia became a part of the Burgundian dominion. It was afterwards comprehended in the French empire of Charlemagne, and, in the partition of his vaſt

Hiſtory.

‡ Coxe's Letters on Switzerland, Letter 17. This is written by the author of the Sketches, and is in fact a much enlarged edition of the Sketches with a different title.

dominions,

dominions, the greater part of it was annexed to the German empire, with which it continued above four centuries. The Auſtrian government oppreſſing the people of Uri, Sweitz, and Underwalden, theſe three cantons, entering into a league for mutual defence, threw off the Auſtrian yoke in the year 1308. This confederacy, at firſt ſo ſmall, was gradually extended by the acceſſion of other communities, until, by the admiſſion of Appenzel in the year 1513, the league of the 13 cantons, joined with ſome other little ſtates, was finally concluded.

For above a century after the compact of the three firſt cantons, the whole force of Auſtria was directed againſt Switzerland, which, like a rock aſſailed by the ocean's billows, withſtood her reiterated attacks, and broke her fineſt armies. The power of Burgundy, at that time not leſs formidable, and that of France, were likewiſe foiled in their attempts againſt this then unconquerable ſtate. The heroic valour, diſplayed by theſe hardy mountaineers in defence of their liberty, raiſed their infantry, in which conſiſted the whole ſtrength of their armies, into the higheſt eſtimation; inſomuch that their alliance was moſt aſſiduouſly courted, and their armies ſolicited into the pay of contending potentates; between whom this martial people held, as it were, the ſcales of victory. Their independance as a ſtate, though long enjoyed in the utmoſt latitude, was not formally acknowledged by the German empire until the treaty of Weſtphalia in the year 1648.

Curioſity. To what age or people is to be aſcribed a moſt ſingular curioſity, which Mount Pilate at the lake of Lucerne preſents, we are not informed. In the middle of a cavern hollowed in a black rock, in the ſide of the mountain, at the elevation of 5000 feet, and in the moſt perpendicular part, a ſituation which has hitherto proved utterly inacceſſible to all who have attempted to approach it, "ſtands a coloſſal ſtatue, which appears to be of white ſtone. It is the figure of a man in drapery ſtanding, leaning one elbow on a pedeſtal, with one leg croſſed over the other, and ſo regularly formed that it cannot be a luſus naturæ. This ſtatue is called Dominick by the peaſants, who frequently accoſt it from the only place from which it can be ſeen, and when their voices are re-echoed from the cavern, they ſay in the ſimplicity of their hearts, Dominick has anſwered us §."

Religion. By the preaching of Zuingle at Zuric, and of other divines elſewhere, the Proteſtant religion was introduced into Switzerland at a very early period. Zuric firſt embraced the reformation in the year 1524, and her example was ſoon followed by ſome other Swiſs commonwealths. Religious differences gave birth to three civil wars; the firſt in the year 1551, the ſecond in 1656, and the third in 1712. By the treaties which ſucceeded theſe unhappy conteſts, matters reſpecting religion were regulated between the two ſects. Beſide ſome other ſtates, the Catholic religion is excluſively eſtabliſhed in the

§ Coxe's Letters, Letter 23.

ſeven

ſeven cantons of Friburg, Lucerne, Soleure, Zug, Sweitz, Uri, and Underwalden: Calviniſm in like manner in the four cantons of Berne, Baſil, Schaffhauſen, and Zuric, together with other communities; and both religions equally in the cantons of Appenzel and Glaris. In the diſtricts which are ſubject to cantons of different religions, both ſects enjoy the ſame privileges in perfect equality. Here is to be ſeen a moſt laudable harmony, according to the true Chriſtian temper, between people of two very different ſects. The ſame church, in many parts of Glaris, ſerves two congregations of the different perſuaſions; the Catholic prieſt officiating in it at one time of the day, and the Proteſtant miniſter at another. But elſewhere the governments of Switzerland breathe an intolerant ſpirit; the predominant ſect in each community excluding the other. Except in Geneva, the Calviniſts permit not the free exerciſe of their religion even to their Lutheran brethren.

The Calviniſts of Switzerland, as in other countries, have no hierarchy; their clergy being equal in rank, and their church governed in the manner of a commonwealth. The revenues of their clergy are ſmall; the Calviniſts approximating to the ſyſtem of the primitive Chriſtians in few points more than in the poverty of their miniſters. Here, as elſewhere at the introduction of Calviniſm, the revenues of the church were confiſcated by the government, and but ſmall maintenance reſerved for the clergy; the greateſt benefices, as in the canton of Zuric, not exceeding 140 pounds yearly, whilſt ſome, as

among the Griſons, ſcarcely amount even to ſix pounds †.

The Catholic hierarchy conſiſts of the biſhops of Baſil, Lauſanne, Sion, and Coire, together with the abbots of Saint Gallen and Einſidlen, who are conſidered as ſovereign princes and members of the German empire. The revenues of the Catholic clergy, conſidering the poverty of the country, are not to be accounted ſmall. Near two-thirds of all the revenues of the canton of Lucerne belong to the church, and in ſo poor a territory as that of the Griſons the biſhop of Coire has an income of 2000 pounds yearly. Yet, in Switzerland, as elſewhere, they contrive to draw voluntary contributions from the laity. Einſidlen, or Notre Dame des Hermites, in the canton of Sweitz, is the Loretto of Switzerland, poſſeſſing an image of the Bleſſed Virgin to which miraculous powers are aſcribed. On this account it is the reſort of pilgrims, whoſe annual number is ſuppoſed to have been formerly 100,000, and is endowed with immenſe riches, the gifts of devotees in different ages. The univerſities of this country have been by no means ſo fortunate as to engage in the ſame degree the liberality of the people. They are four in number, thoſe of Baſil, Berne, Lauſanne, and Zuric.

Univerſities.

Confining on the Italians, French and Germans, the inhabitants of Switzerland ſpeak the languages of thoſe nations in the territories which reſpectively border on them; nor are they very different from them in their perſonal traits; but have, in their natural

Inhabitants.

† Coxe's Letters, 9th and 86th.

tural temperament, a much greater ſhare of German phlegm than of French vivacity. Excited to labour and chearful induſtry by the nature of their government, which ſecures to each the fruits of his endeavours, unoppreſſed by rents, and enjoying a comfortable ſubſiſtence, they are in general a tall, robuſt, and comely race. But ſome exceptions muſt be admitted, particularly this, that in ſome of the vallies, as in many other parts of the world ſimilarly circumſtanced, ſome are deformed with goiters, or wens growing from the throat, from the ſize of a walnut to that of a peck-loaf ‖. Not only of all Switzerland, but perhaps of all the globe, the territory of Valais has the greateſt proportion of goiterous perſons and ideots. In dreſs the Swiſs gentry and citizens imitate the French, but the peaſants are differently habited, and vary in this reſpect in the various diſtricts. Many of them wear a dark coloured waiſtcoat, a jacket without ſleeves of the ſame ſtuff, drawers ſomewhat like ſailors trowſers, and a little round hat. Some cover the head with an extremely broad ſtraw-hat, which, with the appendage of a long beard, with which many of them are alſo graced, gives them a very groteſque appearance. Many of the female peaſantry wear the hair hanging down behind at full length braided with ribbons, ſhoes without heels, a cloth jacket

Perſons.

Habits.

‖ See Coxe, Letters the 19th and 21ſt. It has been ſuppoſed that the drinking of ſnow-water was the cauſe of the goiters, but this diſorder is commmon in the mountainous parts of Sumatra where ſnow is utterly unknown. See Marſden's Hiſtory of Sumatra, p. 42. 4to. London, 1783.

without

without ſleeves, and their petticoats ſo high on the waiſt as to conceal their fine ſhapes, and even give an air of deformity to their perſons ‡.

Manners. As the country contains a great number of communities, various in their forms of government, as the ſurface is in ſoil and climate, a uniformity of manners in its people is not to be ſuppoſed; but a general ſimilitude may be traced with reſpect to thoſe parts of their character in which they differ from their neighbours. A ſimplicity of manners uncontaminated by luxury or artificial refinements, an open and unaffected frankneſs the reſult of conſcious independance, and a generous love of liberty, diſtinguiſh the Swiſs with honour among the nations around. But it muſt be confeſſed that this noble ſimplicity has been long declining in ſome parts of this celebrated country, chiefly by their intercourſe with the French, in whoſe ſervice a large body of Swiſs troops is conſtantly retained. By their zeal for freedom, joined with its true concomitant a daring courage, and aided by the difficult acceſs of their territories, they have had the ſingular glory of fixing barriers on one ſide to the power of Auſtria, and on the other to the French monarchy; barriers, which theſe formidable and moſt ambitious potentates have not for three centuries dared to tranſgreſs. Liberty is the darling object of the Swiſs, which they have purſued with enthuſiaſtic ardor and enjoy in an eminent degree: No peaſantry on earth are in a more comfortable condition. This they owe to that nobleſt ſentiment of the human ſoul which prefers

‡ Coxe, Letter 15. Moore's View, Vol. i. Letter 34.

death

death to ſlavery. Even ariſtocracy, which in other nations is a moſt odious and oppreſſive government, is in this happy country altogether gentle. The nobles here ſeem ſufficiently to underſtand the danger of treating with indignity a valiant people, conſcious of the natural rites of man, and conſtituting the whole military force of the ſtate. From the ſuperior condition of theſe peaſants they poſſeſs a higher degree of intelligence, cleanlineſs and decorum, than is to be found in the oppreſſed commonalty of the neighbouring ſtates. Of their honeſty and mutual confidence an aſtoniſhing inſtance is this, that "on each ſide of the road which runs through the valley of Muotta in the canton of Schweitz, ſtand ſeveral ranges of ſmall ſhops uninhabited, yet filled with various goods, of which the prices are marked: Any paſſengers, who wiſh to become purchaſers, enter the ſhops, take away the merchandize, and depoſit the price, which the owners call for in the evening.*" But with reſpect to cleanlineſs the Vallaiſans are an exception; being dirty in their houſes and apparel; which doubtleſs contributes to the production of the goiters †. The Noſtalgia, or longing deſire of returning to one's native country, called by the French the Maladie du pays, which is found to affect the natives of mountainous regions more ſtrongly than others, is ſaid to prevail in an eminent degree among the Swiſs when in foreign parts; inſomuch that the French government have ſtrictly prohibited the playing of certain tunes in the hear-

* Coxe's Letters, Letter 23.

† Ibid. Letter 19.

ing

ing of the Swiſs ſoldiers employed in their ſervice, leſt this muſic, as being common in Switzerland, ſhould excite in their breaſts the ideas of the ſweet rural ſcenes to which they had been accuſtomed, ſo as to render them melancholy and cauſe deſertion ‡.

‡ We may here inſert theſe beautiful lines of Dr. Goldſmith concerning Switzerland.

Where the bleak Swiſſe their ſtormy manſions tread,
And force a churliſh ſoil for ſcanty bread.
No product here the barren hills afford,
But man and ſteel, the ſoldier and his ſword.
No vernal blooms their torpid rocks array,
But winter lingering chills the lap of May.
No Zephyr fondly ſooths the mountain's breaſt;
But meteors glare, and ſtormy glooms inveſt.
And yet ev'n here content can ſpread a charm,
Redreſs the clime, and all its rage diſarm.
Though poor the peaſant's hut, his feaſts though ſmall,
He ſees his little lot the lot of all;
Sees no contiguous palace rear its head
To ſhame the meanneſs of his humble ſhed;
No coſtly lord the ſumptuous banquet deal
To make him loath his vegetable meal,
But calm, and bred in ignorance and toil,
Each wiſh contracting fits him to the ſoil.

Thus every good his native wilds impart
Imprints the patriot paſſion on his heart;
And ev'n thoſe ills that round his manſion riſe
Enhance the bliſs his ſcanty fund ſupplies.
Dear is that ſhed to which his ſoul conforms,
And dear that hill which lifts him to the ſtorms;
And as a babe, whom ſcaring ſounds moleſt,
Clings cloſe and cloſer to his nurſe's breaſt;
So the loud torrent and the whirlwind's roar
But bind him to his native mountains more.

The

The ſyſtem of the Swiſſe government is of a very complicated nature, compoſed of many ſmall ſtates under very various forms of political adminiſtration, diſtinct, ſeparate, and independent in themſelves, but cloſely confederated for mutual defence and protection. To take a more particular view of this confederacy, it is neceſſary to diſtinguiſh the people, who in the moſt extenſive ſenſe are denominated Swiſſe, into the Swiſſe properly ſo called, and the allies of the Swiſſe. Government.

The Swiſſe properly ſo called inhabit, beſide ſome ſmaller communities, the following 13 cantons, whoſe names are here written in order according to the rank which they hold in the general confederacy, Zuric, Berne, Lucerne, Uri, Schweitz, Underwalden, Zug, Glaris, Baſil, Fribourg, Soleure, Schaffhauſen, and Appenzel. Of theſe with reſpect to their particular governments, Berne alone is a pure ariſtocracy; Zuric, Lucerne, Baſil, Fribourg, Soleure, and Schaffhauſen are ariſtocracies with a tincture either real or apparent, of democracy; and all the reſt are democracies. All theſe cantons are bound to aſſiſt each other againſt foreign invaſions and domeſtic rebellions. They mutually guarantee all the forms of government ſeverally eſtabliſhed, none of which are allowed to be altered; and for the ſettling of diſputes between the different cantons, particular judges and arbiters are expreſly appointed. But the eight firſt cantons, written in the order above, ſtill retain ſome peculiar privileges, as having formed a confederacy before the admiſſion of the other five: For inſtance, if theſe eight unanimouſly

mouſly agree to make war on any foreign ſtate, the reſt are obliged to aſſiſt them without even knowing the motives of ſuch war; whereas the latter cannot commence hoſtilities without the conſent of the former, and are bound to leave the matter in diſpute to their arbitration †.

Diets. Affairs which concern the general confederacy are diſcuſſed in the general diet, which is compoſed of the deputies of the 13 cantons and their aſſociates. It aſſembles ordinarily once every year at Frauenfield in Thurgaw, and ſits a month. It may be aſſembled extraordinarily at any time by the canton of Zuric, which ſends the circular letters, appointing the time and place of the meeting. The deputy of Zuric is preſident of the aſſembly, unleſs it be held in another canton, in which caſe the deputy of that canton is preſident. A plurality of voices is deciſive in the diet. Each canton has only one vote, but may ſend any number of deputies. Beſide the general diet, others of a more particular nature are held, conſiſting of the deputies of ſome cantons combined by particular leagues; for each, as an independent ſtate, may make any treaties with other cantons or foreign powers, provided ſuch treaties be not inconſiſtent with the articles of the general confederacy. The principal of theſe particular leagues are that of the eight firſt or ancient cantons, that of the Proteſtant communities, whoſe meetings are called the Evangelical conferences, and that of the Catholic ſtates, which is termed the Golden Alliances.

† Coxe's Sketches, Letter 32.

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The allies of the Swiſſe are diſtinguiſhed into aſſociates and confederates. The former have the privilege of ſending deputies to the general diet, which is not permitted to the latter. In the claſs of aſſociates are the abbot and town of Saint Gallen, and the towns of Bienne and Mulhauſen. In that of confederates are the Griſons, the Vallais, Geneva, the Principality of Neufchatel and the biſhop of Baſil. Some of theſe ſtates are allied only with particular cantons; yet, if any of them ſhould be attacked by a foreign power, the interference of that canton, with which it is confederated, would engage all the reſt of the Swiſs communities in its defence. Allies.

The revenues of the ſeveral ſtates of Switzerland are ſmall, as their expences are very moderate. Their armies may be ſaid to be of no expence to government, ſince their only force is a well regulated militia. In many of the cantons, particularly that of Berne, the military regulations are ſo good, that government can aſſemble a large body of troops at a moment's warning. Every male is enrolled who has approached his ſixteenth year, and obliged to have in conſtant readineſs, at his own expence, a uniform, arms, and a certain quantity of ammunition. One-third of the whole number are formed into regular regiments, and carefully inſtructed in military diſcipline. Every man muſt inſtantly repair to his place of rendezvous when the ſignal is made, which is done by the firing of beacons placed at proper diſtances in the moſt conſpicuous parts of the country. Large bodies of theſe troops are hired to foreign ſtates, in whoſe ſervice they continue during a ſtipu- Forces.

a ſtipulated time, and on their return to their country are ſucceeded by others. Thus a formidable body of well diſciplined troops is conſtantly retained for the ſervice of their country, not only without expence, but even with pecuniary emolument, as thoſe powers, which employ them, pay ſubſidies to the Swiſs governments for this privilege. The potentate, in whoſe ſervice by far the greateſt number of Swiſs troops were maintained, was the king of France, who had made a treaty for this purpoſe with the whole Swiſſe confederacy, and paid annual ſubſidies to a conſiderable amount *.

In concluding this account of Switzerland, a few words may be ſaid, conformably with the brevity of this work, concerning each of the ſtates; excepting a few, which from their extreme ſmallneſs may well be omitted. Yet two of theſe may merit notice even for their minuteneſs. Theſe are Gerſaw and Haldenſtein, the ſmalleſt ſtates in Europe. Gerſaw is ſituate on the eaſtern ſide of the lake of Schweitz; inacceſſible except by water, and by one path which is almoſt impaſſable. Its whole territory, ſix miles long and three broad, is ſuppoſed to contain not more than 1000 ſouls; yet it has all its departments of government in as complete order as the largeſt ſtates; its general aſſembly of burgeſſes, its chief magiſtrate, council of regency, and militia. It is ſaid that in the whole dominions of this ſtate in miniature

Gerſaw.

* Theſe ſubſidies may probably have amounted to about 60,000 pounds, as thoſe which were formerly paid to the Catholic Swiſſe alone amounted to 30,000 pounds.

not

not one horſe is to be found *. It is in alliance with the four cantons of Lucerne, Uri, Schweitz and Underwalden. Haldenſtein is a barony, which is conſidered as an independant monarchy governed by its own baron, under the protection of the three Griſon leagues, The whole number of the ſubjects of this monarch amounts not to 400, and his whole territory conſiſts of a ſemicircular plain, ſcarcely one mile broad and about five long, between the Rhine and the bottom of a mountain called Calendar†. It is here alſo to be obſerved, that in Switzerland are certain diſtricts, each of which belongs in common to two, three, or more cantons, and is governed by a magiſtrate, called a bailiff, appointed alternately by ſuch cantons. Haldenſtein.

BERNE,

Extending from ſome of the higheſt Alps in Switzerland to the Leman Lake, is by far the greateſt of the Swiſſe communities, containing about a third of all the territory occupied by the 13 cantons, and about a fourth of their population. Its number of people amounts to above 380,000. Its capital town, called alſo Berne, containing about 11,000 inhabitants, is one of the neateſt, cleaneſt, and handſomeſt towns in the world: its houſes, eſpecially in the principal ſtreet, being of a uniform Berne.

* Coxe, Letter 11.

† Coxe's Letters, Letter 82. It is to be obſerved that, where I quote Coxe without ſaying Coxe's Letters, I refer to his Sketches.

height,

height, and built of whitiſh freeſtone. This town is ſeated in a fine cultivated country, with a noble proſpect of ever-ſnowy mountains, on the river Aar, which almoſt encompaſſes it with its rapid ſtream, forming, with its ſteep and rugged banks, a kind of natural fortification *.

The ſovereign and abſolute power of this canton is lodged in the great council, called alſo the Council of Two Hundred, though, when complete, it conſiſts of 299 members; all of whom hold their places for life, and are choſen excluſively out of 300 noble families, who are citizens of the town of Berne †. But it is ſaid that, though 300 families are entitled to that privilege, no more than 80 actually enjoy it. This council aſſembles ordinarily at leaſt twice in the week, and in it a plurality of voices is always deciſive. When the vacancies in it amount to 80 or ſomewhat more in number, they are filled, partly by the ſuffrages of the little council, in conjunction with 16 other members of the great council, and partly by nomination; perſons of a certain deſcription in the great council, beſide all the members of the little council, having each the privilege of nominating a member: But the two avoyers, or chief magiſtrates of the canton, have the excluſive privilege of nominating each of them two members.

* Coxe, Letter 33. Alſo Moore's View, Letter 35.

† For the government of this canton, ſee Coxe's Sketches, Letter 34; and Randolph's Letters concerning Switzerland, Letter 37.

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The little council, or ſenate, to which the great council delegates the executive power, and which ſits every day except Sunday, is a part, or, as it were, perpetual committee, of the great council, and is compoſed of 27 members, including the two avoyers; all of whom hold their places for life. When a vacancy happens, the place is filled by a very complicated mode of election; ſome obtaining by lot the right of nominating candidates, between whom the deciſion is made by the ſuffrages of the great council: But no one can be elected who has not been married, and has not been for ten years a member of the great council.

The chief magiſtrates of this commonwealth are the two avoyers, two treaſurers and four bannerets, all appointed by the great council. The avoyers hold their places for life, and act alternately, each for a year, as preſident of the ſenate. The two treaſurers are appointed for ſix years, the four bannerets for four. Theſe ſix magiſtrates form a council of finances for the management of the revenue. A ſecret council, for the management of ſtate affairs which require ſecrecy, is compoſed of the avoyer out of office, the ſenior treaſurer, the four bannerets, and two members of the ſenate. Juſtice is adminiſtered both in civil and criminal caſes in the ſeveral diſtricts of the canton by members of the great council called bailiffs, who obtain their office by lot: but appeals are allowed from their tribunals to the ſenate and great council. The revenues formerly belonging to the Roman Catholic church in this canton have been converted by the government into a public

a public fund for purpoſes of ſtate, and out of it has been ſaved a ſum ſuppoſed to amount to ſeveral millions, a part of which is depoſited in the treaſury, and another part lent at intereſt to foreign powers.

Similar to that of Berne are the modes of civil government eſtabliſhed in the other ſix ariſtocratical cantons, but all varied, as it were, with different ſhades of colouring; each having its great council, little council, and other departments of ſtate like thoſe of Berne, but differently modified, and ſomewhat limited.

FRIBOURG,

Fribourg. Surrounded by the territories of Berne, is ſuppoſed to contain above 57,000 ſouls, of which number about 5,000 inhabit the town of Fribourg the capital, which is ſingularly ſituate, partly on a plain and partly on a rocky hill, half encircled by the river Sane. The inhabitants of this canton are all Catholics. The great council conſiſts of 200 members choſen out of a few patrician families. The little council conſiſts of 24, and the ſecret council of 60; each of them a ſubdiviſion of the great council.

LUCERNE,

Lucerne. Bordered on three ſides by the canton of Berne, is poſſeſſed intirely by the Catholics, of whom near 3000 inhabit the capital, which bears the ſame name with the canton, is charmingly ſituate on the lake of Lucerne, and is divided into two parts by the river Reuſs which iſſues from the lake. The government is almoſt an oligarchy. The great council of 100

is

is choſen excluſively out of 500 citizens; but almoſt the whole real power of the ſtate reſts in the ſenate or little council, which conſiſts of 36 members, who fill all vacancies in their body by their own ſuffrages, poſſeſs, or diſpoſe of, almoſt all civil employments, and confer all eccleſiaſtical benefices, to which laſt belong near two-thirds of all the revenues of the canton; but new taxes cannot be impoſed, nor alliances made, nor war or peace declared, without the conſent of the citizens convened in a general aſſembly. The ſenate conſiſts of two diviſions which act alternately, each ſix months in its turn.

SOLEURE,

Called alſo Solothurn is a fertile canton, ſurrounded on three ſides by that of Berne, and extending partly along the ridges of the Jura, and partly in the plain. Its inhabitants, about 50,000 in number, are all Catholics. The town of Soleure, its capital, inhabited by about 4,000 people, is pleaſantly ſeated on both ſides of the Aar, which here flowing at the foot of ſome high ſteep hills, expands into a broad and fine river. The government is a complete ariſtocracy. The ſovereign power reſides in the great council, which conſiſts of 102 patricians, taken excluſively out of about 34 families. The ſenate, which conſtitutes a part of the great council, and conſiſts of 36 members, is entruſted with the executive power and care of the police, judges finally in almoſt all criminal cauſes and in many civil, fills the vacant places in the great council and in itſelf, appoints to the principal eccleſiaſtical benefices, and Soleure.

nominates to almoſt all the important offices of the ſtate, for the confirmation of ſome of which nominations a general aſſembly of citizens is, for the mere ſake of form, held annually.

BASIL,

Baſil. A Proteſtant canton, parted from Germany by the Rhine, has for its capital the town of Baſil, the largeſt in Switzerland, but not the moſt populous, the number of its inhabitants not exceeding 11,000. It is beautifully ſeated near the point, where the Rhine, with a broad and rapid ſtream, ſuddenly turns from a weſterly to a northerly courſe. It ſtands on both ſides of the river, and is remarkable for always having all its clocks an hour too faſt; an inveterate cuſtom, the origin of which is not certainly known †. The government of this canton, commonly reckoned an ariſtocracy, inclines in reality to a democracy. No citizen who is noble, and chooſes to retain his title of nobility, can be admitted into the great council, which conſiſts of 300 members, including 60 who compoſe the ſenate. The authority of theſe two councils combined is without controul, but they lie open to the loweſt ranks of citizens, ſo that even the meaneſt may be admitted a member. The ſenate, compoſed of 60 members, together with the four chiefs of the republic, two burgomaſters, and two great tribunes, is divided into two bodies, which act alternately, each for a year. Once every year the citizens meet in a gene-

† See Coxe, Letter 40.

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ral aſſembly. In this aſſembly the magiſtrates take an oath to preſerve the laws, and then adminiſter on oath of allegiance to the people.

SCHAFFHAUSEN,

The ſmalleſt of all the cantons, extends about 15 miles in length, nine in breath, and contains about 30,000 inhabitants, of whom 6,000 dwell in the chief town, which bears the ſame appellation, and is built on the northern ſhore of the Rhine, over which, 300 feet wide at this place, is a wooden bridge of only two arches. The religion is Calviniſm, and the government an ariſtocracy. The great council of 85, including the ſenate of 25, is choſen excluſively out of 1,600 citizens, in whom the ſupreme power ultimately reſides. Schaffhaueſn.

ZURIC,

The firſt of all the cantons in rank, and the ſecond with reſpect to extent of territory and number of inhabitants, contained, in the year 1784, above 174,000 people, about 10,500 of whom inhabited the town of Zuric, the capital, which is moſt delightfully ſituate on the northern extremity of the lake of Zuric, on a gentle declivity, on both ſides of the river Limmat, which iſſues from the lake and falls into the Aar. Calviniſm is the religion, and ariſtocracy the government of this canton. The great council compoſed of 112 members, including the ſenate of 50, is choſen excluſively out of 2000 burgeſſes, or citizens of Zuric, who have collectively a power of in- Zuric.

terfering in ſome caſes, particularly in removing members of the ſenate, which for this purpoſe undergoes an annual reviſion, the great council having a power of changing ſome members, and the tribes of citizens others. The revenue of this commonwealth, though it exceeds not 65,000 pounds annually, is more than ſufficient for the exigencies of the ſtate.

APPENZEL,

Appenzel. The laſt of the 13 cantons with reſpect to rank, has only a territory of mountains and rocks; yet, in proportion to its area, a great population. Religion has cauſed a diviſion of this canton into two parts, called Rhodes Exterior and Rhodes Interior; the former inhabited by 37,000 Proteſtants, the latter by 12,000 Catholics. Appenzel is the largeſt town in the latter diviſion, and Heriſau in the former. Theſe two diviſions are diſtinct commonwealths. Over each preſide two chief magiſtrates called Landammans, who act alternately each for a year, and are elected or confirmed in office yearly by the general aſſembly of the people, convened for the purpoſes of legiſlation and election. In this aſſembly, in which reſides the whole power of the ſtate, all males above the age of 16 without diſtinction of birth or rank have equally votes. Each Landamman in office has a permanent council for the adminiſtration of affairs, and each diviſion ſends a deputy to the general diet, in which, if the two deputies be not unanimous, the canton loſes its vote.

GLARIS

GLARIS

Is a valley 30 miles long, and in ſome places not one mile broad, ſo completely incloſed by the Alps as to be acceſſible only on the northern ſide, where lies an opening between the lake of Wallenſtadt and the mountains which divide this canton from that of Sweitz. Its chief burg or town called Glaris, on the river Limmat, is of no great ſize. The inhabitants of this canton are partly Catholics and partly Proteſtants, who live amicably together; the ſame church, in many places, ſerving for the religious duties of both ſects. The general aſſembly of the people, in which all males above the age of ſixteen have equal ſuffrages, and which is held annually in an open plain for the regulation of affairs of ſtate, elects a landamman, or chief magiſtrate, alternately out of the two ſects; but the Proteſtant landamman continues three years in office; the Catholic only two. The council of regency, in which is veſted the executive power, is compoſed of 63 members, of which 48 are Proteſtants. Glaris.

ZUG,

Intirely a Catholic ſtate, has for its capital a town of the ſame denomination, the only walled town in all the ſix democratical cantons, charmingly ſituate in a fertile valley, on the edge of a beautiful lake to which it gives name. The government of this canton, as thoſe of the two laſt mentioned, is a democracy; but the capital poſſeſſes an extraordinary influence in Zug.

in the adminiſtration. For the enacting of laws and the chooſing of magiſtrates a general aſſembly is annually held of the people. The landamman is elected, by this aſſembly, alternately out of the four diſtricts into which the canton is divided; but, when choſen from the diſtrict of Zug, he continues three years in office, whereas he retains his dignity only two, when elected from any of the other diſtricts; And of the 40 members, who compoſe the council of regency, 13 are furniſhed by the chief diſtrict, while the reſt ſend only nine each.

The three following cantons, conſiſting almoſt intirely of barren mountains, and ſuppoſed to contain in all about 80,000 inhabitants, all of whom are Catholics, are the moſt ancient of the Swiſſe republics, and differ but little in their form of government, which is pure democracy.

SWEITZ,

Sweitz. Has one landamman, and a council of regency compoſed of 60 members, all elected by the general aſſembly, in which reſts the ſovereign power, and in which every burgher of 15 years of age has a right to vote.

URI,

Uri. Whoſe capital burg is Altdorf, has the very ſame government as Sweitz, excepting that, in the general aſſembly, the age of 14 gives a right to vote.

UNDERWALDEN,

Underwalden. Whoſe chief town is Stantz, has the ſame form of government with Sweitz, excepting that the canton

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is divided into two diſtricts, each of which has its general aſſembly, landamman, and council of regency, quite diſtinct; but for the management of external affairs a council is formed jointly out of the two diviſions.

SAINT GALLEN,

Lying on the weſtern ſhores of the Lake of Conſtance, is among the Swiſſe aſſociates, and conſiſts of two ſtates totally diſtinct in government and religion, but blended with reſpect to territory. The town of Saint Gallen, whoſe whole dominion extends only through a ſpace of ſcarcely five miles in circuit, is a Proteſtant commonwealth compounded of ariſtocracy and democracy, the number of whoſe people, both in town and country, hardly exceeds 8000. The abbot of Saint Gallen reigns abſolutely over an ample territory, inhabited moſtly by Catholics, and entirely ſurrounding that of the town. His reſidence is the abbey of Saint Gallen, ſituate cloſe to the town, and quite encloſed by its territory. Like other abbots, he is elected by the 72 Dominican monks who poſſeſs the abbey, and confirmed in his election by the Pope. The town and abbot ſend each a deputy to the general diet. Saint Gallen.

MULHAUSEN,

Though entirely encloſed within the dominions of France, is an aſſociate of the Swiſs, and is in conſequence thereof an independent ſtate. "Mulhauſen ſtands in Sundgau, a diſtrict of Alſace, about 15 miles Mulhauſen.

miles from Baſil, in a fertile plain at the bottom of a ridge of hills, and at a ſmall diſtance from the Voges. The walls of the town encloſe a circumference of not more than two miles, and its whole territory is compriſed within a precinct of eight miles *." The inhabitants of this little ſtate are about 8000 in number, of whom about 6000 are contained in the town. The people are Proteſtants. The government is compounded of ariſtocracy and democracy. " The ſupreme power reſides in the great and little councils, conſiſting both together of 78 perſons, and drawn from the burghers, whoſe number amounts to ſeven hundred, diſtributed into ſix tribes †".

THE BISHOPRIC OF BASIL,

Porentru. Or, as it is alſo called, the Principality of Porentru, containing about 50,000 inhabitants, of whom 15,000 are Proteſtants, is but imperfectly confederated with the Swiſs cantons, a part of it belonging to the German empire. Porentru, the chief town, ſituate three miles from the frontiers of France, in a fine oval plain, is the principal reſidence of the biſhop, whoſe government is much limited, and who is elected by a chapter of 18 canons, who reſide at Arleſheim, almoſt four miles from Baſil.

BIENNE,

Bienne. A Proteſtant aſſociate of the Swiſſe cantons, is ſituate between a fine lake to which it has given its

* Coxe's Letters, Letter 17.

† Coxe's Letters. Letter 27.

name

name, and a ridge of the Jura, at whoſe foot ſtands the town of Bienne. Its whole territory ſcarcely contains 6000 people, and has no more than nine ſquare miles of area. It acknowledges as its monarch the Catholic biſhop of Baſil, to whom it pays a revenue of about 300 pounds yearly; but fully enjoys the liberty of a commonwealth, with a form of government reſembling thoſe of the ariſtocratical cantons.

NEUCHATEL,

United with Valengin, is a principality, about 36 miles long, but no where 20 broad, confederated with the cantons, and containing about forty thouſand inhabitants. Neuchatel, properly ſo called, occupies the plain between the lake of Neuchatel and the Jura, together with the lower parts of the mountains; but Valengin lies intirely within the Jura. The capital town, named Neuchatel, is inhabited by about three thouſand people, and ſtands at the foot of the Jura, partly in the plain and partly on the acclivity. The government is an hereditary monarchy, whoſe prince or ſovereign, ſince the year 1707, is the King of Pruſſia; but ſo limited, that the people enjoy all the liberty of a commonwealth. The prince's revenue, moſt of which is expended in the principality, falls ſomewhat ſhort of five thouſand pounds yearly. The executive power is veſted in a council of ſtate, whoſe members are nominated by the prince; but he can appoint none but natives, nor can he deprive any member of his place. The government is ſo extremely complicated, that Neuchatel.

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it is difficult to know where the legiſlative power reſides; but it ſeems to belong jointly to the prince, the council of ſtate, the town of Neuchatel, whoſe particular government reſembles thoſe of the ariſtocratical cantons, the people of Valengin, who have a kind of negative voice, and a ſupreme court of judicature called the Three Eſtates *. So little are theſe people under the controul of their prince, that he cannot hinder them to enliſt with foreign ſtates, even to fight againſt himſelf. The people of this principality are all Proteſtants, except the inhabitants of two ſmall diſtricts, in which Catholics are tolerated.

GENEVA,

Geneva. Famous for its men of literature, the general urbanity, and liberality of ſentiment of its inhabitants, is by far the moſt populous of all the cities which in any way belong to Switzerland; being inhabited by 24000 people, beſide near 16,000 more who dwell in the very ſmall, but very fertile adjoining territory, which conſtitutes the whole dominion of this republic. It ſtands in a moſt enchanting ſituation, in the opening between the Alps and the Jura, on the weſtern extremity of the Leman Lake, irregularly built, with high houſes, on both ſides of the Rhone, partly on the plain and partly on a gentle aſcent. Its religion is Calviniſm. Its government, which has undergone ſome revolutions, may in ge-

* See an attempt to inveſtigate this government in Coxe, Letter 28.

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neral be conſidered as an ariſtocracy blended with a mixture of democracy. The ſenate, conſiſting of 25 members, has the chief executive power, the management of the finances, juriſdiction to a certain degree in civil and criminal cauſes, the nomination of moſt of the inferior civil officers, the power of convoking the great council and general aſſembly, the excluſive privilege of conferring the freedom of the city and of propoſing laws. The great council of 200, out of whoſe body, conſiſting in fact of 250 members, the ſenators are choſen, has the power of rejecting or approving the laws propoſed by the ſenate, of receiving appeals in cauſes above a certain value, of pardoning criminals, and of beſtowing ſome of the moſt important charges of government. The ſovereign council, or general aſſembly, conſiſts commonly of about 1,500 citizens and burghers, which names denote two different ranks of tradeſmen, the former of whom alone can be admitted members of the ſenate. To this general aſſembly, which meets twice in the year, belongs the power of ultimately rejecting or approving laws, impoſing taxes, contracting alliances, declaring war or peace, of chooſing the principal magiſtrates, and of electing the members of the great council and ſenate. The determination is made by a majority of voices; but, in this numerous aſſembly, none of the members is allowed to ſpeak, but each is permitted merely to give his vote. The chief magiſtrates are four ſyndics, elected annually in this manner; the ſenate nominates eight of its members, out of whom, after they are approved by the great council, the general aſſembly

aſſembly chooſes four. The annual revenue of this commonwealth, is leſs than 30,000 pounds. It admits ſtrangers into its privileges with a liberal facility unknown in the other Swiſs republics, almoſt all of which purſue in this reſpect a very narrow policy. After the citizens and burghers, the natives conſtitute a third rank of inhabitants of Geneva. Theſe, a numerous body, jealous of the excluſive privileges held by the two higher ranks, are the ſons of thoſe who have purchaſed a right of ſettling in this city †.

THE VALLAIS,

Vallais. Severed from the canton of Berne by the mountains of Gemmi, a high part of the Alps, is a narrow and extremely fertile valley, inhabited by about 100,000 people, all Catholics; extending 100 miles in length; terminated eaſtward by the mountain of Furca, and weſtward by the Leman Lake; watered through its whole extent by the Rhone; and incloſed by ramparts of mountains, which are quite impaſſable except in two or three very narrow places of difficult entrance. Sion, the capital, ſtands near the Rhone at the foot of two inſulated mountains. The Vallais is divided into two parts; the upper, which is bounded weſtward by the river Morge a little below Sion, and the lower, which ſtretches thence to the Leman Lake. The Upper Vallais is divided into ſeven diſtricts called dizains, which, with reſpect to internal juriſdiction, are ſeparate

† For an account of Geneva, ſee Coxe's Letters; alſo D'Ivernois's Hiſtory of Geneva.

commonwealths,

commonwealths, all of a democratic form like the popular cantons of the Swiſſe, excepting Sion, whoſe government is an ariſtocracy; but all connected by ſo cloſe a union as to form one republic, over which the biſhop of Sion preſides with more of nominal than real authority. The general affairs are regulated in the general aſſembly, called, Landfrath, which meets twice every year at Sion, and which conſiſts of nine voices, namely, the biſhop, who is preſident, the chief of the republic called Lands-hauptmann, who collects the votes, and the deputies of the ſeven dizains; each dizain having only one vote, though its deputies are ſeldom leſs in number than four. The Lands-hauptmann is elected, or confirmed, by this aſſembly every two years. It alſo, when the biſhopric is vacant, chooſes a new biſhop out of four candidates propoſed by the chapter of Sion; and in all caſes a majority is deciſive. The people of the Lower Vallais have no ſhare in the government. Their country is divided into ſix diſtricts, over which bailiffs are appointed by the general aſſembly.

THE COUNTRY OF THE GRISONS,

Comprehending part of the ancient Rhœtia, is ſuppoſed to contain little more than 100,000 inhabitants, beſide near 90,000, who, neither being Griſon people, nor having any ſhare in their goverment, are denominated Subjects of the Griſons, and inhabit the vallies of Bormio, Valteline, and Chiavenna, which vallies are commonly reckoned a part of Italy. The Griſon

The Griſons.

Griſon country is divided into three leagues, namely the Grey League, ſuppoſed to have a population of 54,000; the league of the Houſe of God, containing near 30,000 inhabitants; and the league of the Ten Juriſdictions about 15,000. The capital of the league of the Houſe of God, and the largeſt of all the Griſon towns, is Coire, ſituate in a delightful valley above two miles wide, on a ſtream which falls into the Rhine, built partly on the plain, and partly on the ſteep ſide of a rock, with narrow and dirty ſtreets, containing about 3000 ſouls, and ſurrounded with ancient walls of brick *.

The three Griſon leagues form by their union one commonwealth. Each league is divided into a number of communities, which have ſeverally their peculiar conſtitutions, enjoy their municipal laws and cuſtoms, and are independent commonwealths in all concerns which interfere not with the general policy of the whole republic, or the articles of the particular league of which they form a part. Theſe communities, of which the Grey League contains 27, the league of God's Houſe 21, and that of the Ten Juriſdictions 14, are democracies, excepting that in ſome is found a mixture of ariſtocracy. In general in theſe communities every male has a vote at a ſtated age, in ſome at 14, in ſome at 16, and in ſome at 20. Affairs which concern the three leagues in common are tranſacted in the general diet held annually in rotation at Ilants, a very ſmall town capital of the Grey Leagues, at Davos a ſmall village of

* Coxe's Letters, Letter 81; alſo Burnet's Travels, &c.

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the Ten Juriſdictions, and at Coire. This diet conſiſts of 66 voices, of whom three are the three chiefs of the leagues, each nominated by his own leagues reſpectively, but not in the ſame manner; and 63 are deputies, of whom the Grey League ſends 27, that of God's Houſe 22, and that of the Ten Juriſdictions 14. The chief of the league, in whoſe diſtrict the diet is held, is preſident, and is impowered to give a caſting voice when the votes are equal. A majority of ſuffrages is deciſive, but the ſupreme authority is not abſolutely and finally veſted in the diet; for in all matters of importance the deputies either bring poſitive inſtructions from their conſtituents, or refer thoſe points concerning which they have no inſtructions to the deciſion of the ſeveral communities; ſo that the ſupreme power conſtitutionally reſides in the body of the people. For the receiving of the votes of the ſeveral communities, relative to the queſtions referred to their deliberation from the diet, a congreſs generally meets in February or March at Coire, compoſed of the three chiefs, and nine deputies, three from each league. Beſide which the three chiefs meet regularly at the ſame town three times in the year. At preſent the Houſe of Auſtria, by the payment of penſions, and by other motives, directs all the affairs of the Griſon commonwealth. As about two-thirds of the Griſon people are Proteſtants, and all affairs are determined by a plurality of voices, this commonwealth is conſidered as a Proteſtant ſtate.

THE END OF THE FIRST VOLUME.